

The Outlook

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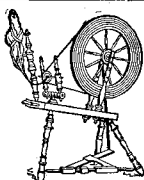
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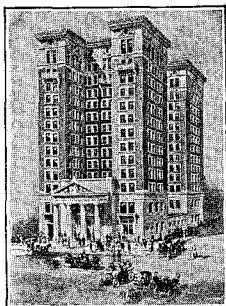
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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 16, 1907



International Peace

What it is hoped and believed will be the most important congress of private citizens ever held in behalf of international peace and arbitration will assemble in New York City on April 14 for a three days' session. Its official title is "The National Arbitration and Peace Congress." Mr. Andrew Carnegie is the President, and the list of vice-presidents and members of the General Committee includes some of the most distinguished statesmen, lawyers, clergymen, educators, business men, labor leaders, and editors of the country. The Congress convenes in April for two reasons: first, in order that its deliberations and recommendations may be presented to the second Hague Congress, which is to meet in June; and, second, because of the presence in this country at that time of a body of distinguished visitors from Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, and Holland, who have been invited by Mr. Carnegie to be his guests at the dedication of the Carnegie Institute in Pittsburgh on April 11. The programme as so far arranged is a most interesting one. There will be nine morning, afternoon, and evening sessions, at which addresses will be made by Mr. Carnegie, Governor Hughes, Secretary Root, Ambassador Bryce, Mr. Bryan, and other men of distinguished international reputations. It is hoped that President Roosevelt, who is greatly interested in the object of the Congress, will be present and speak at the public dinner with which the sessions of the Congress will close. American public opinion, supporting the President and the Department of State, had very weighty influence in the organization and the successful work of the first Hague Conference. The second Hague Conference, to be held next June, will undoubtedly, if its delegates receive the necessary support from their various

countries, exercise a profound influence upon future international relations in the civilized world. Thus the New York Peace Congress has a most important function to perform, and ought to have the attention and co-operation of every American citizen who desires to see this country a leader in international comity. Further information concerning the Congress and its programme may be obtained by addressing Mr. Robert Erskine Ely, Secretary of the Executive Committee of the Congress, at 19 West Forty-fourth Street, New York City.



A Supplementary Note

The reader will find Mr. Bonaparte's article on "Two Years of a Government that Does Things" entertaining; the student of current history will find it suggestive. What we add here is by way of a supplementary note, for the purpose of giving some details of a National development which Mr. Bonaparte has described so picturesquely in general terms. The process of nationalization has gone on in this country under the Constitution ever since the Union of States was formed. Two courses of decisions of the United States Supreme Court have in recent years accelerated this process. The first is that the United States is a Nation; that it has all the powers and prerogatives of nationality except as they are expressly or by necessary implication of the Constitution denied to it; that, for example, it may acquire territory by war or by purchase, and such territory is not a part of the United States and its residents are not citizens of the United States, and the provisions of the Constitution do not extend over such territory and cannot be taken advantage of by such subjects. This decision, or rather these decisions, constitute a recognition by the highest judi-

cial authority that the United States is a Nation with all the characteristics necessary to enable it to take its place among other world powers. It may choose not to do so, but it is not prevented from doing so by its Constitution. The other decision, or series of decisions, has the effect to confer upon Congress power to deal with all inter-State commerce, and with all the instruments of such commerce, unhindered by any supposed conflicting rights of the States. These decisions may be summed up in the words of Justice Bradley, of the Supreme Court (1887): "In matters of foreign and inter-State commerce there are no States." Upon these decisions is based what the critics of the present Administration condemn as an unwarrantable and unconstitutional extension of Federal powers, but which is certainly warranted by a long and nearly unbroken course of judicial decisions interpreting the Constitution. Under the one or the other of these courses of decisions may be classified the following list of results accomplished, or initiated and put in the way of accomplishment, by the present Administration during the two years of its existence:

Foreign.—The initiation of the call for the second Hague Conference.

The Russo-Japanese peace.

The extension of the Monroe Doctrine making responsibility for and protectorate of American Republics commensurate.

The cultivation of a better understanding between South and North America.

The beginning of practical work on the Panama Canal.

Agricultural bank established and coast-wise law postponed for Philippines.

Domestic.—Railway rate regulation.

Food inspection.

Quarantine nationalized.

Naturalization nationalized.

Public lands protected from spoliation.

Rights of labor protected on inter-State railways.

Prohibition of political contributions by corporations.

Prosecution of trusts.

Consular service reorganized.

Public opinion which approves and public opinion which disapproves unite in

attributing much of the Congressional action of the past two years to the influence of the President. He shares with Congress both the credit and the blame—if blame there be. For he has been the recognized leader of his party, and has been not only the executor of the laws but also has served as a *quasi* prime minister in initiating and promoting their enactment. The Outlook believes in the soundness of the decisions under which these results have been accomplished, and in the main heartily approves the results themselves.



March 4, 1907, marks the final readjustment of President Roosevelt's Cabinet. Let us speak of its members in their official order. The country is of course to be congratulated that Elihu Root, of New York, remains the Secretary of State. Leslie M. Shaw, of Iowa, the retiring Secretary of the Treasury, whose financial method has been marked by much ingenuity, gives place to George B. Cortelyou, of New York, late Postmaster-General; he had previously been First Secretary of Commerce, and previous to that he had been private secretary to Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. The marked attention to detail and high administrative qualities which have characterized Mr. Cortelyou's career are an earnest of what may be expected of him in his new position. If the country is to be congratulated on Mr. Root's retention of office, it is none the less to be congratulated that William H. Taft, of Ohio, whose diplomatic and administrative ability has been shown in the Philippines and in Cuba, remains in office as Secretary of War. William H. Moody, of Massachusetts, one of the most efficient of our Attorneys-General, takes a place on the Supreme Court bench; the new Attorney-General is Charles J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, certainly a no less able man; he has been Secretary of the Navy. The new Postmaster-General is George von Lengerke Meyer, of Massachusetts, recently Ambassador to Russia, previous to which he was Ambassador to Italy. The new Secretary of the Navy is Victor

H. Metcalf, of California, who has been Secretary of Commerce. The retirement of Ethan Allen Hitchcock, of Missouri, as Secretary of the Interior causes general regret. Mr. Hitchcock's unsparing prosecution of the land thieves has earned for him the lasting gratitude of his country. It is to be hoped and expected that his successor, James R. Garfield, of Ohio, will prove worthy of such a heritage; certainly Mr. Garfield's investigations as Commissioner of Corporations, especially into the affairs of the Standard Oil Company, constitute an achievement worthy to rank with Mr. Hitchcock's. James Wilson, of Iowa, remains the Secretary of Agriculture, and has the distinction of being the only member of President McKinley's Cabinet now in office. Oscar S. Straus, of New York, succeeds Mr. Metcalf as Secretary of Commerce, and brings to his office a large knowledge of the subjects comprised in his department. Two changes in commissionships also deserve mention. As Commissioner of Corporations Mr. Garfield is succeeded by Herbert Knox Smith, of Connecticut, his efficient Deputy Commissioner; and as Land Commissioner, William A. Richards, of Wyoming, gives place to Richard A. Ballinger, of Washington, ex-Mayor of Seattle. Mr. Ballinger is a graduate of Williams College (as are Secretary Garfield and Mr. Leupp, the Indian Commissioner), but he is a thoroughgoing representative of Western life. He will have a specially important work in carrying out the new policy of the Administration with regard to public lands. He was urged to take the Commissionership against his own personal inclinations, as a matter of public service in order that the West and the Pacific Coast might be represented in the new treatment of settlers, graziers, miners, and lumbermen in their relation to the Government.

*Against Federal
Child Labor Legislation*

Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, in an article published in the New York Evening Post for March 9, puts forcibly the objections to Senator Beveridge's Child Labor Bill. The spirit of this article is admi-

nable. No one will attribute to Mr. Murphy either sectional prejudice or indifference to the cruel injustice of child labor. His arguments against the bill deserve to be considered in the same spirit of fairness with which they are urged. Following his own order, they are briefly these: (1) We are the citizens of a democracy distributed under specific local governments to which are intrusted local police regulations. If, whenever the duties of these State governments are not performed, they are to be assumed by some external power, the sense of local responsibility will be seriously impaired. (2) We have no good reason for believing that Federal administration would be better than State administration. The Nation's care of the Indians does not indicate that it would be pre-eminently successful in undertaking to care for the children. (3) It cannot constitutionally care directly for the children. Senator Beveridge himself admits that Congress has no power to pass a law directly stopping child labor. The fact that Congress can accomplish the desired end only by indirection is not necessarily fatal, but is a serious disadvantage. (4) The bill is necessarily limited in its effect. It cannot prevent children from being employed in the manufacture of goods to be sold within the State, and Mr. Murphy believes that the provision for preventing the sale of child labor products outside the State can be easily evaded. (5) For these reasons it is not possible to depend on Federal legislation for the upbuilding of a permanent and comprehensive system for the eradication of the evils of child labor. "Such a system is possible only under the slower but freer processes of local State legislation." In the last analysis reformers must depend upon public opinion to protect the child, and local legislation and the agitation which must precede it furnish the best means of awakening this public opinion. (6) The proposed bill is unconstitutional. It differs from the Pure Food Law, the Lottery Law, and the like because those laws protect the people of one State from injury at the hands of people of another State, while the object of this bill is to protect the children of a State

from injuries perpetrated by industries carried on within that State. It is not pretended that the transportation of child labor goods will injure the people of the States to which those goods are carried.



*For Federal
Child Labor Legislation*

The distinction which Mr. Murphy makes between the Pure Food Law or the Lottery Law and the proposed Child Labor Law is a real one, and the question whether the Child Labor Law is Constitutional can be finally settled only by the Supreme Court of the United States. We believe, however, in view of the trend of the decisions of that Court, that it would be held Constitutional. The inter-State railways are the highways of the Nation, and we think a Nation has a right to prohibit the use of its highways when that use is promoting and strengthening a great injustice, even though the injustice is locally perpetrated and only the people of the locality directly suffer from it. The other objections of Mr. Murphy rest upon the assumption that the people must choose between Federal and State legislation, and that Federal legislation will tend to discourage State legislation. His argument that this will be the case is not to us convincing. We think, on the other hand, that agitation for local police regulations prohibiting child labor on sanitary grounds within the State will be aided by the passage of Federal legislation putting the stamp of National disapproval on such child labor, and putting what we may call a "taboo" on all goods into which child labor has entered. The sentiment of the State on behalf of justice to the child will, in our judgment, be strengthened, not weakened, by such an expression of the sentiment of justice on behalf of the child by all the States acting in co-operation. It will not only be easier to enforce child labor laws in Pennsylvania if the product of child labor cannot be sold outside of Pennsylvania, but it will also be easier to enact and maintain such laws if all the surrounding States have agreed in a public act of condemnation. If it were true that the defenders of the children had to choose between Federal action

and State action, we should be inclined to agree with Mr. Murphy and prefer the State action. In our judgment, there is no such alternative. We may have both, and each legislation will support the other. Readers who wish to make a further study of this subject are advised to write to Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, Post-office Box 347, Montgomery, Alabama, for his argument against the Beveridge bill, and either to Senator Albert J. Beveridge, United States Senate, Washington, D. C., or to Mr. S. M. Lindsay, Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York, for arguments in favor of the bill.



*The Federal Investigation
of Child Labor*

Those who believe that the Federal Government must deal with the child labor question need not be at all discouraged by the failure of the Beveridge bill to receive consideration in the session of Congress just closed, or the ex-cathedra statement of the Senate Judiciary Committee that Federal legislation is unconstitutional. In spite of this hastily expressed opinion of the Committee, Congress has taken action which it appears to us will result in Federal legislation in the near future. A bill was passed and has been signed by the President authorizing and directing the Secretary of Commerce and Labor "to investigate and report on the industrial, social, moral, educational, and physical conditions of woman and child workers of the United States wherever employed, with special reference to their age, hours of labor, term of employment, health, illiteracy, sanitary and other conditions surrounding their occupation, and the means employed for the protection of their health, persons, and morals." For this investigation the sum of \$150,000 has been appropriated. There are some interesting stories told in connection with the successful enactment of this legislation. Opponents of any investigation, supposedly those who are responsible for the abuses of child labor, at first endeavored to have the investigation nullified by cutting out the special appropri-

ation. Public sentiment, however, was too strong to be resisted, and the necessary money was provided. Vigorous efforts were also made by the opponents of the measure to throw the investigation into the Census Department, in which case it would have been purely statistical and of very little human interest. The census authorities themselves pointed out the inadequacy of any such investigation as they could make. After some pretty sharp strategical fighting in Congress, the investigation was finally assigned to the Department of Commerce and Labor, with the hearty approval of the National Child Labor Committee. The terms of the bill are so explicit and the provisions for the investigation so thorough that in due course of time the country will have the facts in an authoritative form. If, as some of the influential employers of child labor assert; there are no abuses, there will be no need for reformatory legislation. But if evils and suffering are disclosed upon a scale which the private societies and experts believe to exist, Federal legislation is sure to follow. The friends of child labor reform, whether they believe in National or State action, or, as *The Outlook* does, in both, will undoubtedly welcome this Federal investigation and aid it in every way that they can.

*The Prevention of
Railway Accidents*

⊗ In the case of the recent accident on the Harlem Division of the New York Central near Woodlawn Cemetery, New York City, by which twenty-four persons were killed and a hundred and fifty injured, the Coroner's jury found last week that the responsibility was "divided between the construction and operating departments." Dissatisfaction with this lack of specification caused the Coroner thereupon to hold the President and Directors of the company responsible, but he has now ruled that the corporation is responsible, as bringing the case more quickly before the Grand Jury. The corporation may be held for manslaughter in the second degree. Sufficient cause, it is claimed, is found in the testimony. This shows that the engineer took the fatal curve at excessive speed, which, together with the

train's weight, sheared off the heads of the spikes holding down the rails; that the train was already six minutes behind time on a stretch of road on which the schedule calls for a speed of nearly a mile a minute; finally, that the train's engineer was new to his work and had no speedometer in his cab to show how fast he was going. We hope that the District Attorney and the Grand Jury will single out the particular persons really responsible, that they may be made to feel the weight of popular condemnation. If the Coroner's jury did not specifically fix responsibility, it made certain timely recommendations: that the railway company be compelled to reinforce the fastenings of the outer rails on all curves, constructed as the one in question was proved to have been, by adding spikes, rail-braces, or increased super-elevation; that until this strengthening is completed the company be required to lower its speed on such curves to so-called equilibrium speed, or to a speed absolutely safe to protect the lives of passengers and employees; finally, that the company be compelled to install such instruments or make such tests to determine speed under varying conditions as will enable motormen to know with reasonable exactness the speed at which trains are traveling. It is a satisfaction to add that the New York Central Company promptly accepted one of these recommendations, by issuing an order limiting the speed of trains in the electric zone to forty-five miles an hour on straight roads and thirty-five miles on curves. Last week's accident at Tivoli on the Hudson River, by which only the presence of a freight train on the outside track prevented the cars of a derailed passenger train from plunging into the river, has perhaps hastened the New York Central's institution of a new safety plan, which, if successful, may be commended to all railways. The system about to be installed will connect all the rails between New York and Buffalo by electric wires. These will be looped into the signal towers. If a rail breaks, or if any attempt is made to remove one, the electric connection will automatically not only notify the towerman but also set the signals at danger, warning an on-

coming train. According to the statistics compiled by New York Central engineers, broken rails and weakened roadbeds have caused more than three-fifths of American railway wrecks during the past five years. Hence there is special interest in the success of the system which the New York Central is praiseworthy introducing. We repeat, however, that all these questions of railway appliances would be most quickly and generally brought before the country by the institution of a governmental Bureau of Railway Accidents, similar to that which has for many years done effective service in England.



*State Control of
Public Utilities*

An important and voluminous bill for the control of public utilities has been introduced into the Legislature of New York. It embodies the recommendations on the subject which Governor Hughes made in his first message. It deals with three general subjects—the creation of two State Commissions as instruments of State control, regulations as to rates and other matters of public service, and limitations as to the financial and other aspects of the organization of public service corporations. The present Railroad Commission has proved itself insufficient and irresponsible to the people. This the bill abolishes, as well as the State Gas Commission, the Inspector of Gas Meters, and the Board of Rapid Transit Commissioners, which had charge of the subways in New York City. In the place of these bodies the bill creates two Commissions, one to control all the public utilities of New York City, the other all those outside of the city. By a careful and definite division of powers, the two Commissions control those utilities operated partly within and partly without the city. Each Commission consists of five members, appointed and subject to dismissal by the Governor. Each Commissioner receives an annual salary of \$10,000, and holds office for five years. The term of one Commissioner on each Commission expires every year. Each Commission has large powers within its jurisdiction. It can hold hearings, sum-

mon witnesses, and administer oaths. It has the power to sanction or prohibit the assignment, transfer, or lease of any franchise, and the issue of stocks and bonds (limiting the capitalized value of a franchise to the amount which the corporation has actually paid to the State or municipality for it); to determine the form of accounts and reports of public service corporations; to require co-operation between two or more common carriers; to fix maximum rates; to investigate accidents; to order adequate service, alterations, safety devices, motive power, equipment, regulations as to the number and efficiency of employees, and the like; and to require of municipalities engaged in operating public utilities to report according to a designated form. Moreover, to the Commission of the district comprising the metropolis are given the powers of the present Board of Rapid Transit Commissioners. Every order of a Commission is to be in force until abrogated by itself or by a court declaring it illegal. As to rates and other matters of public service there are such conservative provisions as the prohibition of a higher rate for a shorter than for a longer haul "over the same line in the same direction," "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions," except by order of the Commission, the prohibition of discrimination in rates and service, the requirement that schedules be published, and the like. Indeed, the bill provides explicitly for co-operation between the State Commissions and the Inter-State Commerce Commission. As to financial transactions, the most important provisions not already mentioned are those prohibiting the capitalization of a merger beyond the amount of the capital stock of the constituent bodies, and prohibiting any stock company hereafter to acquire, except as security, more than ten per cent. of the stock of any railway, street railway, gas, or electric corporation organized or existing under the laws of the State. Opposition from certain public service corporations of the State was to be expected, but it is evident from a statement of Mr. Shonts, President of the company controlling the transit in New York City, that this opposition will not be

unanimous. No more important measure has recently been introduced into any State Legislature, and none which appears to be in its general provisions more in accord with the healthful movement in the Federal Government toward control of corporations.



*Our Masters
the Police*

At the instance of Police Commissioner Bingham, of New York City, a bill has been introduced into the Legislature of the State and has passed the Lower House, which is designed to mitigate the present evils of the metropolitan police force. At present the force is practically an immovable body commanded by a very movable head. The laws and the courts have justified the policeman in regarding his office primarily, not as a post of responsibility, but as a piece of property. No matter how inefficient, undisciplined, and even corrupt he may be, he can keep his grip on his position unless he is convicted before a court of law. At present every member of the force reaches his grade by a prescribed method of promotion. Patrolman, roundsman, sergeant, detective, captain, inspector—from the bottom to the next to the top—each member of the force has the right to resist his dismissal from his grade by his commanding officer on the ground that his place is a possession of his own, of which he cannot be deprived without due process of law. What Commissioner Bingham's bill does is to strike at this vicious system—not in its root, but in its highest branches. The bill abolishes the inspectorship as a distinct grade. Instead it provides that the Commissioner shall detail captains to act as inspectors. Nominally, these captains so detailed will be inspectors. They will have the duties, authority, and pay of inspectors. But they will no longer be in possession of the office of inspectorship as a piece of property. The Commissioner can end the detail at will. Similarly, membership in the detective force, instead of being a separate piece of property, is made an incident in the duty of those members of the uniformed force whom the Commissioner may select. Other less impor-

tant changes are made in the present law. If there is any defect in the bill, it is that of leniency. Probably, however, no more drastic bill could be passed. It is argued that a corrupt city government could subject to itself more completely the whole police force if this bill were to pass. Of course that is an argument based on distrust of municipal self-government. As it is at present, the city government is unable to control the police for good or ill except by corrupt collusion with lawbreakers. The police should be like an army, the responsive instrument of a leader. If then there were corruption, the people would know whom to blame; if efficiency, the people would know whom to trust.



*Shall the City Cook
Its Milk
The Affirmative*

A controversy not altogether free from acrimony has arisen in New York City over the milk question. The issue is between those who believe in pasteurizing practically the entire milk supply and those who advocate other methods. Upon the decision of this question depend the lives of hundreds of children next summer. To pasteurize milk, it perhaps should be explained, means to raise it to a temperature of 155° to 167° for thirty or twenty minutes respectively, in order to kill the disease germs in it, and then to cool it rapidly to a temperature of about 50°. This can be done roughly by allowing a kettle of water to come to a boil, removing it from the fire, putting a sealed bottle of milk into the water, allowing it to remain there for half an hour, when the temperature of the water will have been reduced and that of the milk greatly raised, and then putting the bottle of milk into nearly ice-cold water until it is to be used. This is not the most accurate way, but it will kill those germs which cause the intestinal disturbance that is so dangerous to infants and is responsible for a large part of the annual infant mortality. In an apparatus designed for the purpose the process can be made very accurate and effective for killing those minute organisms which cause scarlet fever, diphtheria, tuberculosis, and

typhoid fever, and which are easily conveyed in milk. For several years Mr. Nathan Straus has philanthropically maintained in New York milk depots at which carefully pasteurized milk has been sold without profit. At these depots milk, not only pasteurized, but also properly modified for infants' use, has also been dispensed, and mothers have been instructed in the care of it and the proper ways of feeding it to their babies. The results obtained by means of these depots have led Mr. Straus to advocate very strongly the pasteurization of all the milk that comes into the city, except that small amount of high-priced milk which after bacterial test is "certified" as being free from danger. It has been proved by observations conducted by the Rockefeller Institute and the city Health Department that of children fed on milk purchased from grocery-stores, 44 per cent. did badly; of those fed on condensed milk, 40 per cent. did badly; of those fed on bottled milk, 39 per cent. did badly; and of those fed on milk from these milk depots only 19 per cent. did badly. The difference in death rate was still more striking, being nearly 2 per cent., exactly 2 per cent., nearly 1 per cent., and less than three-tenths of 1 per cent., respectively. It is also pointed out that if the milk supply of the city were pasteurized, contagion from tuberculous cattle and from infectious diseases in the households of dairymen would be eliminated. Moreover, the example of such European cities as Berlin and Copenhagen, which have adopted wholesale pasteurization, and the approval of eminent European scientists are cited. With arguments such as these, Mr. Straus, supported by many, if not most, of the New York newspapers, has urged upon the Board of Aldermen and the State Legislature measures which would make it impossible for any but the exceptionally well-to-do to obtain raw milk in New York City. Notwithstanding these arguments, the great majority of those who have expert knowledge of the subject, in this country at least, regard the proposition to pasteurize practically the entire milk supply of a large city as not only unnecessary and unwise, but positively perilous.

*Shall the City Cook
Its Milk
The Negative*

The case against wholesale pasteurization of milk may be stated in part as

follows. There is a very material difference between such pasteurization as is done in milk depots or in a household and the sort of pasteurization that would have to be done by municipal authority. In the one case the milk, upon being pasteurized, is put into bottles which are immediately sealed, or is pasteurized in the sealed bottles themselves, and is not exposed until consumed; in the other case it is pasteurized in bulk—as, for instance, in pipes—and then is exposed necessarily to contamination. Now, as pasteurization not only destroys hurtful germs, but also the properties of the milk that resist the germs, pasteurized milk, if afterwards contaminated, is a more dangerous vehicle of disease than raw milk. If pasteurized milk were sold about the city as raw milk is at present, it would absorb more readily than it does now those minute organisms that render it a medium of disease, it could not be so fresh (for the process of pasteurization would delay its distribution), and it would not warn consumers by turning sour so soon (for pasteurization destroys the harmless bacteria that cause it to sour). Besides, since dealers would be saved from complaints about sour milk, they would be made less rather than more careful in handling it. So far, then, from rendering harmless any insufficiency of inspection, which the believers in wholesale pasteurization argue cannot for years be made adequate, wholesale pasteurization, while lulling consumers into a false sense of security, would vastly increase the burdens of milk inspectors and make their work more difficult if not entirely impossible of accomplishment. It is a mistake, moreover, to attribute to pasteurization only, or chiefly, the good results obtained by the Straus milk depots, the "Gouttes de Lait," as the French milk dispensaries are called, and similar institutions. These results are due not only to pasteurization, but also to the proper modification of milk for infants by the addition of cream, lime-water, and so on, and to the educa-

tion of mothers in the care of the milk and in proper methods of feeding. Rochester, New York, tried the plan of pasteurizing its milk, but greatly reduced the death rate of the city by abandoning wholesale pasteurization and substituting for it the careful inspection of farms, dairies, creameries, processes of transportation, and milk shops, coupled with systematic education of producers and consumers. Following the most expert advice, a body of citizens called the New York Milk Committee, organized under the auspices of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, is opposing the plan for general pasteurization, and is advocating instead an immediate increase in active and efficient State inspection of cattle and condemnation of tuberculous cows, an enlargement of the force of city milk inspectors to keep the farmers and dealers up to high standards, the establishment by the city, with the aid of private philanthropy, of milk depots like the Straus depots, where any mother can obtain, at no special cost, milk properly pasteurized and modified to suit the individual needs of her child, and can receive, what is even more important, advice and help. To such depots the mothers will come. That has been abundantly proved. If the Committee can persuade the State to enforce its present laws regarding cattle, and the city to add at once an adequate number to its force of inspectors, and to establish these milk depots, hundreds upon hundreds of babies who are otherwise doomed to die this summer will be saved.



*The Adirondack Forest
Reserve in Danger*

On another page Professor Fernow, the eminent forestry expert, calls attention in a timely communication to the great lack of the Adirondack Forest Reserve. The State Constitution, adopted in 1894, reads:

The lands of the State now owned or hereafter acquired, constituting the forest reserve as now fixed by law, shall be forever kept as wild forest lands. They shall not be leased, sold, or exchanged, or taken by any corporation, public or private, nor shall the timber thereon be sold, removed, or destroyed.

This "let alone" policy has, of course, nothing to do with scientific forestry,

which means not only a setting apart of certain timber tracts, but a proper provision for their cutting and reforestation. New York State will undoubtedly modernize its Constitution at some future time. But it is much better to adhere to the present Constitutional provision than it would be to favor the Water Storage Bill now before the Legislature. This bill constitutes an amendment to the Constitution. It passed the Legislature of 1906, despite the fact that no public hearing was allowed on it. It will, if it passes the present Legislature, be submitted to the vote of the people. In his recent message Governor Hughes dealt with the subject of water-storage in the Adirondacks, saying that such power so acquired should be saved for the benefit of the entire people; it should not be surrendered in whole or in part to any private interest. In the New York Board of Trade and Transportation's recently published memorial a similar position was taken; the memorial called attention to the policy of Massachusetts, which has so conserved its water-power resources as to enable it to take front rank in the textile industries. The increase of the use of water-power in New York State has been due to the expansion of the paper and wood-pulp industry. This industry flourishes only at the expense of the forests. Even if its forests did not suffer, State lands in the Adirondacks should not be jeopardized by increasing the water-storage on practically all of the many lakes, so that public health would be in danger every time the water was drawn off. The history of water-storage in that region is a sufficient indication of what would be the result were it established on a large scale. The few large private holders of Adirondack forests would be injured, of course, but the great injury would come to the thousands who annually resort thither for sport, rest, and health. That mountain region has been a source of physical invigoration to many, not to a few, as Dr. Fernow seems to indicate. As to the "privileged rich men" who are "leagued together" in the Association for the Protection of the Adirondacks, there are, perhaps, half a dozen millionaires among the thousand or twelve

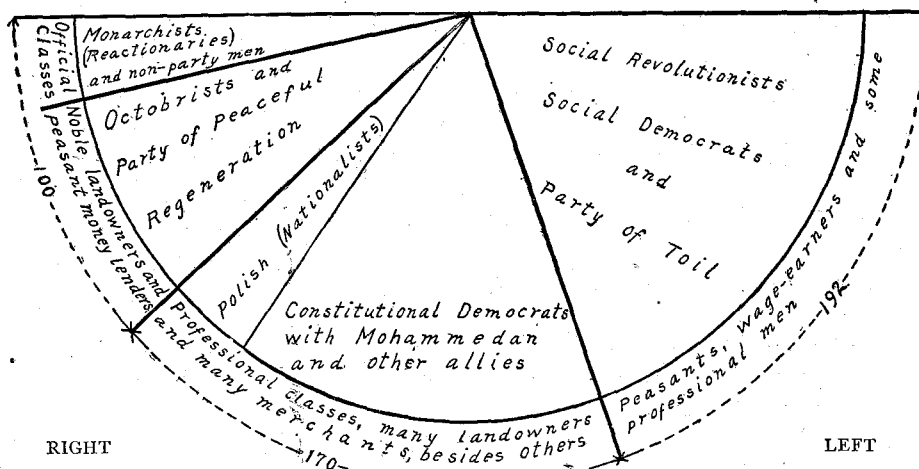
hundred members. The vast majority is made up of people of modest means, who love the mountains and woods and streams and the living creatures in them. Nor is the sentiment which has rallied to the Association's action in protesting against the water-storage plan a millionaire sentiment. The Association's action has been supported by the leading papers of the State and by people everywhere in Boards of Trade, Civic Associations, and Adirondack Clubs; this sentiment represents not a class but the mass.

*The Significance of the
Second Russian Duma*

Last week the second Russian Duma convened. It was called to order by the Vice-President of the Council of the Empire, the upper house of the Russian Parliament, the Duma constituting the lower house. The opening ceremony began with a Te Deum intoned by the Metropolitan of the Russian Church. Around him were grouped the clergy, Cabinet ministers and other officials, and the Conservative deputies. But the great mass of the Radicals looked on with indifference. The Metropolitan then addressed all the deputies, begging them to forget differences and work for the welfare of their country. After singing the national anthem, the Imperial Decree was read, and the balloting for the office of Presi-

dent of the Duma took place. The election of Feodor Golovin may be regarded as the most significant act of either the first or second Duma. For he received the unanimous vote of the Constitutional Democrats and the Radicals, and probably some votes from the more liberal of the Octobrists. The event shows that the half-dozen factions into which the opponents of the autocracy are divided are not so permanently opposed to one another as has been reported. Moreover, it indicates the failure of the reactionaries' efforts to foment strife among those factions. The solidarity displayed by them augurs well for the Duma's future. The new President is also the President of the Moscow Zemstvo or Provincial Council. He is a member of one of the oldest Russian families, is well-to-do and thus has a material stake in the country's prosperity, is a foremost Liberal, but is respected by men quite irrespective of party, having many friends both in the court circle and among the peasants.

These sections into "Right" and "Left" which the Duma is divided are of increasing interest. Until the first Duma met, they were comparatively vaguely defined. They are now seen to group themselves into Conservative, Liberal,



POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE DUMA

The parties sit in the order indicated, the Radicals on the left of the Speaker, the Conservatives on his right. The figures in the dotted lines indicate the number of members, according to the latest returns, sitting in the respective divisions. Outside the semicircle is described the character of the constituencies represented.

and Radical sections. In the Duma, as in other Continental parliaments, in the semicircle of seats facing the President the Conservatives sit on his right and the Radicals on his left. Hence they are known by the expressive names "Right" and "Left." The Right comprises two groups, the Conservatives or reactionaries, standing for the official classes, and the Moderates or Octobrists, this name being taken from the Emperor's Freedom Manifesto of October, 1905; the Octobrists are composed largely of landowners and money-lenders, and, while opposed to autocracy, hardly allow their leanings towards liberalism to outrun the Manifesto's limits. The two sections together may exceed a hundred members. The Center of the House is composed of Liberals, namely, the Constitutional Democrats and their allies among the Nationalists, the latter being the Poles and other border subjects, who are aiming towards local self-government, and the Mohammedan representatives. In the previous Duma the Constitutional Democrats constituted the largest political party, and they would probably continue their preponderance in the present House but for the Government's arbitrary change in the election laws and its prosecution of some of the best members of the former Duma. Had it not been for this, the Constitutional Democrats might have been returned in almost double their strength. As it is, they with their allies number about 170 members. The Left is composed of three groups—first, the Party of Toil, which may be thought to correspond to an industrial labor party, but is in reality much more of a farmers' union; the Social Democrats, some of whose members are opposed to revolution; and, finally, the Social Revolutionists, whose title sufficiently defines them. These Radical groups number almost two hundred members. The hope of the Duma is in a coalition. It is a reasonable hope, because for a generation both the French and German parliaments have been so governed. In this coalition the Constitutional Democrats will naturally form the rallying point; they will endeavor to frame such legislation as will attract to its support the

Octobrists of the right and the Party of Toil to the left. It is expected that any measure that is proposed by the opponents of the Government will be met by measures already drafted by the Government. Indeed, the Government may submit its measures immediately. The period of time since the first Duma's dissolution has been busily spent by the upholders of autocracy in framing legislative measures. If these provide for a constitution, universal suffrage, equality of citizens before the law, and radical agrarian reforms, they will mark a turning-point in Russian progress. If they do not, they will be met by a solidarity of opposition which, compared with the unwieldy and unworkable solidarity of the first Duma, has already shown its ability to strike as one man. In that fact lies the significance of the second Duma.



Municipal Reaction in London

As the result of the County Council election, what may be described as the Tory party in London municipal affairs is again where it was in 1886. It then controlled not only the City of London—lying within the boundaries that now mark the limits of the ancient city—and the municipal affairs in what are now the twenty-eight boroughs outside the City of London, but also certain boards of the whole metropolis. By the Local Government Act of 1888 the old Metropolitan Board of Works, whose closing years were in disgrace owing to exposures of graft, was superseded by the County Council. Since the first election in 1889, although the elections for Councilors are held every three years, the Progressives were in control until March of this year. During these eighteen years, though the municipal Tory party never lost its hold on the City of London, the Progressives were responsible for the municipal policy of Greater London; for all the works which are metropolitan rather than local in their character. It was under their auspices that the widening of the Strand and the construction of Kingsway—the great thoroughfare running north from the Strand and connecting this southern

artery of London with Holborn—was constructed. All the parks and commons, not of the royal demesne, within the area of Greater London have been under the management of the County Council, which has added seventy parks to the forty then existing, and has increased the area of the parks and open spaces from 2,600 acres to 5,000. In the nearer parks the Council has provided for the recreation of the people. The London asylums for the care of the insane have also been under the management of the Council instead of under poor-law control as prior to 1889. In the later period of Progressive rule the Council took over and electrified the street-car system on the south side of the Thames; and also took over from a private company the street-car system in North London and electrified a part of this system—as much as was practicable until streets in the populous central borough of St. Pancras were widened and a number of dangerous curves eliminated. The Council had imposed on it by Parliament in 1904 all the work that from 1870 had been in the hands of the London School Board. In a word, between 1889 and 1907 it became the local Parliament for Greater London, controlling all London's affairs except the police, who, save within the confines of old London, are under the control of the Secretary of State for Home Affairs. Municipally London, in its larger aspects, was remade. The remaking was expensive. London enjoyed its five thousand acres of parks. Its working classes, in particular, benefited from the cheap street-car fares, and the all-night services of which there were none before the days of the County Council. They had the benefit also of full weight in coal supplies and of the strict administration of the Weights and Measures Act which the Council has enforced.



*Why Reaction
Has Come*

The remaking of London was needed; but it was expensive. Rates increased. Londoners generally began to feel the cost of this improved municipal housekeeping by the County Council and the twenty-eight borough Councils. Last

November the Progressives suffered defeat in the borough elections—the worst defeat since municipal councils superseded the old vestries in 1899. Besides the growing burden of County Council government, the Progressives had come into conflict with many vested interests. The theater and music hall proprietors had no liking for the close oversight of their structural arrangements by the Council; and the proprietors of the music halls found the censorship exercised by the Council irritating. The brewing, liquor, and saloon interests are almost invariably Tory in municipal as well as in national politics. They threw their influence against the Progressives. So did the Anglican clergy and the supporters of those elementary schools in London which by the Education Act of 1903 are still largely under clerical control. So also did the promoters of electric light and power schemes which the Council had thwarted by undertaking to obtain authority from Parliament to establish a great municipal light and power station. In London, too, there is some reaction from the great wave of Liberalism of last year. The result of all these forces and of the most bitterly fought election in the municipal history of the metropolis is that for the next three years the Tories or Moderates—now calling themselves Reformers—will be in full control of the County Council. They start the new term with the support of 85 in a Council of 120 members. This strength will be augmented by the filling up of aldermanic vacancies; and, in brief, the municipal affairs of London—Greater London and the boroughs—are now under control of the Moderates. The first result will be that the County Council Electric Power Bill will be dropped. The promoters of public utilities companies will again have an opportunity to advance their plans for the supply of light and power to the metropolis; and it is probable that the Council will proceed no further with the electrification of street-car lines north of the Thames, even if the systems on both sides of the river are not leased to companies. This overturn has been hailed in some quarters in this country as a defeat for municipal ownership. Of course it is not.

It is rather a check to certain experiments in municipal operation—a very different matter. The election of the Tories also puts to rest one bugaboo—the control of elections by municipal employees. These employees did vote, we understand, pretty solidly for the Progressives, but their votes were cast ineffectually.



*The End of a
Sect-Maker*

John Alexander Dowie, who died in the city of his own creation in Illinois last week, was a foreigner who invaded America and created, out of Americans as subjects, a kingdom for himself. By persuading people that he had healed them by prayer, as thousands of quacks do by nostrums, he won their gratitude; by ordering them about, he won their allegiance; and by inducing them to invest in real estate and other ventures, he won their money. Having them, heart, soul, and pocketbook, he rewarded them with sensations. He instituted elaborate but obvious forms of ritual; he fought single-handed the viper press; he roared out epithets at his opponents; he drove about with a kind of little pomposity; he built a city—such as it was—founded a bank, a newspaper, a manufacturing enterprise; he assumed holy offices to which he attached Scriptural names. He lashed himself into a condition approximating insanity, brought upon himself a financial scandal, wearied the aforesaid interested multitude, alienated most of his followers, and now is dead. His career indicates, as the New York Tribune has acutely commented, the fact that the American people are deficient in the power of critical judgment. Dowie could never have gained a following among people steeped in tradition, nor among people who, disregarding tradition, examined, weighed, and studied with discrimination anything new. He found his little kingdom among a people who were restrained neither by tradition nor by critical powers. Until we either have acquired more traditions or more discrimination, we may expect to find continued successors to Joseph Smith and John Alexander Dowie.

Lenten Meditations

Not Into Temptation

“Lead us not into temptation:” many thoughtful minds have stumbled at this petition in the Lord’s Prayer. How strange, they think, to ask our heavenly Father not to lead us into temptation! How is it possible to think of him as so doing? The common explanations do not quite content them. The real difficulty is not removed until the mistake of taking that petition by itself, apart from those next preceding, is corrected—a frequent mistake, indeed, among Bible readers, who isolate a text from its context, with consequent misunderstanding.

The petitions immediately preceding ask for daily bread—all things serviceable to earthly life—and for the forgiveness of sins. But experience and observation warn us that the gifts corresponding to these needs have often become temptations. A petition that they may not become such then naturally suggests itself. We may be tempted to use in a way that is sometimes selfish, sometimes immoderate, gifts which were intended for sustenance and efficiency in our Father’s service. Not all who utter the Lord’s Prayer are active in benevolent work, or temperate at their daily table. We may also be tempted to abuse our reliance on the Father’s forgiveness by making it the nurse of a neglectful rather than of a conscientious regard to his will. Many who pray for it are making little or no effort to overcome their faults, and to become more scrupulously dutiful. The ancient sect of antinomians, who believed that the Christian was freed from the moral law, has always had a large non-professing but practical following.

Thus liable to be turned to evil as are these two great gifts—the one for the physical, the other for the moral, life—it is a deeply religious instinct which conjoins petitions for them with a petition that we may be delivered from so perverting them. In this natural connection this petition in close reference to the preceding two really means, “Lead us not *thereby* into temptation:” that is, in

fuller terms, Let not the gifts we ask for the bodily and the spiritual life become temptations to evil uses.

Thus viewed, these petitions make the unity of the Lord's Prayer more apparent. In the midst of it is the heart of it, "Thy Will be done," the cry, not of passive self-resignation, but of active self-dedication to dutiful doing. To this as their goal the two preceding aspirations, "Hallowed be thy Name," "Thy Kingdom come," lead up. To this as their end look back the two following requests for the means to it in outward sustenance and inward grace, and they are emphasized by asking finally for safeguarding in the use of these as means to it, for final victory over evil.

Too often has religion been divorced from morality in the two lines of human need which this petition covers. Too commonly is it permitted to cloak a ragged morality, hiding and forgetting its need of repair. Too often is it fancied to atone for lack of moral vigilance and vigor. It is to be delivered from that sort of religion that Christ in this petition bids us pray. When we beseech God not to lead us into temptation, we beg that no gift of his may dull, that every gift may sharpen, our conscience.



Equalization of Salaries

A movement of the women teachers of New York City to secure an equalization of salaries for men and women in the public schools is of more than local significance, since it brings to the fore for discussion a principle of universal application. That principle has been stated, "Equal pay for equal work." This popular phrase has, however, been repudiated as "unfortunate" by some of the advocates of the movement, who have substituted therefor "Pay the position." It is very clear from the figures presented by the advocates of this movement that some revision of salaries is called for. It does not appear to be reasonable that a principal of a school should be paid a lower salary than subordinate teachers working under

her because she is a woman and they are men.

But neither of the principles avowed by the advocates of this movement appears to us to be sound. It is not true that we should pay the position; we should pay for the service; and different services may very well be rendered by different persons occupying the same kind of position. The phrase "Equal pay for equal work" seems far more like an expression of absolute justice. The difficulty with it is that in the higher forms of service there is no standard for measuring the work so as to declare what is equal. Charles Dickens and Anthony Trollope did, so far as one can judge from reading their biographies, something like an equal amount of work in writing their novels, but they did not receive equal pay. Many a country minister on a salary of five or six hundred dollars a year is doing quite as much work and work perhaps of quite as good quality as that of other clergymen whose salaries are five or six thousand dollars. There are hundreds of physicians in our great cities who do their very best work in the hospitals and dispensaries for nothing, who perform without pay for the poor operations for which they would charge thousands of dollars when performed for persons who are able to pay for the service.

The advocates of equal pay in schools for equal work have suggested the following standard: "There is but one way in which to judge of the equality of work; and that is by results. The pupils of the woman teacher are graduated by exactly the same standards and tests as those of the man teacher. Does the Board of Education make any modification of its demands when a woman teacher is involved? Not in the least. The superintendents and principals fill out the same blanks and judge from identical standards in rating the work of either." But this standard, though as good a one as could be suggested, is inadequate. Intellectual results are not the only results of school work; they are not even the most important results. It is the general opinion of educational experts that in the higher schools more men teachers are needed.

This is not because the pupils of men teachers pass better examinations than the pupils of women teachers; it is because the masculine element is needed in the educational community; because, for example, the average boy, if he is taught only by women, comes to regard scholarship as a purely feminine accomplishment and look upon it with something like contempt. He needs to understand that manliness and scholarship may and often do go together, and he can learn this only by seeing them together in the teacher whom he respects both for his manliness and for his scholarship. It is for this reason that in private schools the wise principal often looks for athletic qualities in a teacher who has nothing to do with athletics.

We repeat that, in our judgment, the whole question of salary adjustment needs better adjustment. The fact that increase of salaries will involve increase of cost to the community is not a serious objection. Most communities in America can well afford to give their teachers better compensation. But the question of sex ought not to enter into the problem at all. The school should obtain such men teachers as are necessary to secure the masculine element, such women teachers as are necessary to secure the feminine element, and in determining the salaries should take into account a number of elements—the amount of work performed, the price necessary to be paid to secure the service, the living expenses of the person rendering the service, and to some extent at least the indefinable quality of character and capacity to impart character which cannot be measured by any hard and fast rules.



Interpreting the Constitution

A correspondent, supporting the position of the Rev. Samuel W. Dike (*Outlook*, February 16, p. 379) that, if the Federal power is to be extended beyond the limits intended by its framers, the extension should be made by amendments constitutionally adopted, not by a process of

judicial construction, sends us an address of Mr. Justice Brewer, of the United States Supreme Court, delivered before the Virginia Bar Association last summer, which sustains the same view. Judge Brewer says:

We often hear the declaration that something more than a knowledge of the law is necessary for a successful judge; that he should be endowed with the spirit of constructive statesmanship. By this and other ways there is expressed the thought that the new conditions of life call upon the court to give a new and different meaning to the language of the Constitution, a meaning larger and broader than that which, according to the rule so clearly stated by Chief Justice Marshall, was the meaning of the framers of the Constitution and the founders of the Government.

I know that there are changed conditions and a different social and business life from that which obtained when the Constitution was framed. It may be that new laws are necessary, possibly amendments to the Constitution, but it must always be remembered that this is a Government of and by the people, and if additions and changes are necessary, let them be made in the appointed way. Never let the courts attempt to change laws or Constitution to meet what they think present conditions require. When they do this, they clearly usurp powers belonging to the legislature and the people.

There are two conceptions of the United States Constitution: one, that the Constitution created the Nation and gave to it all its powers, and that it is to be strictly construed, like a power of attorney given to an agent to manage an estate; the other, that the Nation created the Constitution, and that it is to be construed liberally as a statement of fundamental principles designed to indicate how the powers of the newly formed Nation were to be distributed among its several departments. One regards the Nation as the agent of the States, the other regards the States as members of the Nation. Mr. Justice Brewer's address inclines to the former view, but, with characteristic candor, he makes it clear that the decisions of the United States Supreme Court are based upon the latter view. Thus he refers to Mr. Justice Bradley in the *Legal Tender Cases*:

The United States is not only a government but it is a national government, and the only government in this country that has

the character of nationality. . . . Such being the character of the general government, it seems to be a self-evident proposition that it is invested with all those inherent and implied powers which at the time of the adoption of the Constitution were generally considered to belong to every government as such, and as being essential to the exercise of its functions.

So Mr. Justice Gray in the Chinese Exclusion Case :

The United States are a sovereign and independent Nation, and are vested by the Constitution with the entire control of international relations, and with all the powers of government necessary to maintain that control and to make it effective.

So Mr. Justice Brown in the Insular Cases :

We are also of the opinion that the power to acquire territory by treaty implies not only the power to govern such territory, but to prescribe upon what terms the United States will receive its inhabitants, and what their status shall be in what Chief Justice Marshall termed "the American Empire."

But perhaps the most striking illustration of this enlargement of Federal powers under the Constitution by judicial construction, quoted by Judge Brewer, is furnished by the decisions of the Court that the admiralty jurisdiction of the Federal courts does not stop at tide-water, but extends over all the navigable waters of the United States, including its canals.

We think from a careful reading of Mr. Justice Brewer's address that he both agrees with and fully sustains the statement in *The Outlook* that "the changes now going on under a liberal construction of the Constitution are not greater than those accomplished under Chief Justice Marshall in the last century." No recent decision of the Supreme Court has given such extension to the powers of the Federal Government as Chief Justice Marshall's decision that the Supreme Court can set aside as unconstitutional any act of any State Legislature—a decision contemptuously disregarded by President Jackson at the time, but now universally recognized as the supreme law of the land, and as much a part of the Constitution as any of the Amendments. Mr. Justice Brewer deprecates these changes wrought by judicial decisions, but in this he dissents

from a majority of the Supreme Court by whose authority the changes are being made. Whether this liberal construction of the Constitution as a document of political principles capable of adaptation to the changing conditions of a growing Nation, rather than of inflexible rules by which the power of the Nation is unalterably limited, imperils individual liberty, as Mr. Justice Brewer appears to think, or safeguards individual liberty, as *The Outlook* thinks, is a question which we do not here discuss.



The Spectator

If the great American weeklies are not careful, they will destroy a great American illusion. Does not hoary tradition countenance the belief that the only really ingenious and mechanically up-to-date people on earth foregather under the Stars and Stripes? Why, then, these recurring series of articles on "Things they do better in Europe"? *The Spectator* finds that these pernicious creeds insensibly affect his patriotic point of view. Not many days ago the exigencies of the Boston rapid transit system stranded him at a certain transfer station called Roxbury Crossing. The day was a wild one; the wind drove the dust in stinging particles into the *Spectator's* unfortunate eyes. Just before him two employees of the street railway company were engaged in sweeping out switches. At every stroke of their brooms a fresh cloud of germ-laden dust was consigned to the breeze, to be wafted to the eyes and throats of the transferees, to whom came neither cars nor rumors of cars. Over the *Spectator's* mind there flashed a vision of the way they do switch-clearing in Europe: how a man armed with a dirt-plow—a pointed steel implement shaped to fit the rails—walks the track, pushing his little rail-cleaner before him at the end of a broomstick; how the dust gathers in a pan behind the plow; how at intervals the man dumps it beside the track in neat piles; how another man with a cart follows and takes the dust away. At the thought there rose in the *Spectator's* mind a traitorous doubt whether after all we *are* the cleverest

nation under the sun, as we have long fondly believed.



Before the taste of the pavement was out of his mouth, the Spectator had recalled a number of foreign arrangements which he would like to see copied at home. He remembered the clatterless milk-cart of Hamburg—a thing like a hose-truck, with bright brass cans swinging silently from hooks along the sides. Then there was the sliding change-tray in the booking-office at Hanover—a tray with ribs like a washboard, on which the most obstinate coin could not contrive to stick. You put your money on it and slid it through to the ticket-seller, and he slid it back with the tickets and change. The Spectator bethought him of a morning in Copenhagen, when he watched the mail-collector making his round. The man jerked open his pouch, hung it on hooks in the bottom of the mail-box, and turned a crank. Presto! the letters plumped all together into his bag, and the collector was off in less time than it would have taken an American carrier to gather in his first handful. That post-box dumped like a dump-cart. Truly, a beautiful simplicity—one of the things one wonders at not having thought of before. But what was it doing in Scandinavia, so far from the resourceful Land of the Free?



Yes, be it patriotic or not, the Spectator feels impelled to add his contribution to the list of things they do better in Europe. It's not inventions alone that he would like to import. He would like to see on the back of every American school-child a comfortable knapsack like those in which the little students of the Old World habitually carry their books. Why drag down the young shoulders and cramp the gait of our school-going boys and girls when they might wear their burden where Christian wore his and be as free as air? The Spectator would like to bring over, too, a certain kind of park bench which had the merit of being always empty for the accommodation of tired strangers.



If the Spectator had his choice which of all the Old World institutions he

would bring over to New York, he thinks he should choose that *omnium gatherum* of conveniences—the Danish telephone kiosk. Suppose that at the four corners of Union Square there stood neat summer-houses, each with a brisk and capable little woman inside it waiting to furnish the hurrying New Yorker with postage-stamps or postals (and the opportunity to write the same on the premises if it suited his turn), to send telegrams, reserve theater tickets, and give him the use of a pay 'phone! Think of the saving of time, the temper, and the legs! Kongens Nytorv, in Copenhagen, is fitted up like that. Indeed, it must be a shock to an imported Scandinavian, of whatever persuasion, when he finds that in New York he must either call a messenger or travel several city squares to send a telegram. In Christiania despatches are simply dropped into a box on the side of the first street-car that comes along, there being a telegraph office at every trolley station. And really, when one comes to think of it, why not?



Consider the manifold internal advantages of a European street-car. The Spectator does not remember whether the convenience was common to all German towns, but he knows that in Hamburg there is a bright-faced clock in every car. This enables the passenger to fidget intelligently when bent on catching a train. The Spectator doubts whether the little brass detention-pens for lighted cigars that he saw on Danish street-cars could be with success attached to the back platforms of our own trolleys, for he does not believe that even the ocular demonstration of a number would satisfy an American that he had his own and not another's cigar. But in the Norwegian capital the cars had a beneficent and importable device for announcing the next stop. The Spectator has no notion how the thing worked except that it was a cylinder with a scroll running round it, and that periodically it flopped over with a loud premonitory click. Probably the motorman controlled it, since the Spectator could not detect the agency of the conductor. How the Spectator blessed it as it unrolled

before him those queer Norwegian street names which appeal so frankly to the American eye, so obscurely to the American ear! Why not an arrangement like that on the electrics of Broadway?



And the foreign conductors—if the Spectator could only import them! The thought moves him almost to the point of tears! Little would he care whether it was the blue, brass-bound kind of Germany, who say "Please, pretty," when they demand your fare, salute you if you ask a question, and dismount before you when the car stops, or the overawing, military kind of the far North. For all are courteous and all are clean. It hurts the Spectator's National pride to think what disgust must fill the soul of a European the first time he sets eyes upon the untidy uniform of the average American conductor. Ill-brushed, soiled and shiny about the change pockets, if not actually worn through, the livery would disgrace any business corporation except the American street railway companies.



The Spectator realizes that life on an American trolley must be hard upon the clothes. Nattiness may be impossible. But is it also impossible that the hands of our conductors be kept within speaking distance of cleanliness? During a recent visit to Cambridge the Spectator one evening boarded the historic Memorial Hall Special which bears Cantabrigians to the concerts of the Symphony Orchestra. The aisle was packed with men in evening dress and young girls in gay party cloaks. Through the chattering crowd pushed an unusually strenuous conductor, laying hold unceremoniously of one shoulder after another, and the hands with which he touched the light fabrics of the ladies might have been those of a coal-heaver or a plumber! There flashed across the Spectator's inner eye a vision of his first Stockholm conductor—a Northern Adonis, tall and svelt, with drooping fair mustache, his personal magnificence enhanced by a perfectly fitted Prince Albert of light blue-gray, white gloves, and a natty military cap. This resplendent

creature never soiled his fingers nor yet his gloves by contact with dirty money. He carried what looked like a dark-lantern of glittering brass and plate glass, into a slot in which you dropped your fare yourself. Why not the dark-lantern and the decent white gloves for us?



Ingenuity and even convenience may be carried too far, as the Spectator is painfully aware. He once crossed from Copenhagen to Lübeck on the delightfully appointed Swedish steamship Malmö, which boasted a patent seagoing table, balanced in the center so as to keep a perfect level no matter how the vessel pitched. It was, as Stevenson says, "a good idea, but failed to please." The Spectator wavered into the tiny saloon, and sat down to admire the table bearing its load of dishes so steadily that the water did not stir in the glasses. Unfortunately, the seats did not swing with the table. The Malmö listing suddenly to leeward, the Spectator beheld his plate sinking uncannily away from him, and the next moment the table rapped him smartly on the knees. The passengers—Swedes, Germans, and Americans alike—shrieked and clutched wildly at the cloth, then bethought them, and tried to pretend that they were quite used to this sort of acrobatic dinner. The table meanwhile self-righteously preserved its dignity and its dishes. The Spectator inwardly vowed that he would not be taken off his guard again. But when, presently, just as he was spearing a far-away morsel, his edge of the table rose up and almost smote him under the chin, it came over him with conviction that it was not dinner that he wanted at all, but something stationary to look at, something that did not tip and tilt and slide away after that unreliable fashion. That table was the cleverest invention he ever beheld. He will guarantee that not a dish is broken even when the Baltic is at its wildest—and also that nine-tenths of the passengers who contract for dinner upon its heaving board think better of it before a second course is out. Economically it is a great thing. But the Spectator hopes he may never meet its like again.

Two Years of a Government That Does Things

BY CHARLES J. BONAPARTE

Attorney-General of the United States

DURING the campaign of 1904 a distinguished lawyer of his own State advocated Judge Parker's election because the speaker wanted, and thought the people likewise wanted, a President who wouldn't "do things." Doubtless he knew his own wishes, but the result showed him woefully amiss as to those of the people. Seldom has there been shown more signal incapacity to interpret public opinion than was thus displayed. In truth, readiness and ability to "do things," in contrast to talking about doing things or finding good reasons not to do things, have been always or nearly always what the American people found and liked in our truly popular public men. From the days of Old Hickory (to go no further back) to the present, the men really close to the voters' hearts have been men of achievements, not men of promises, nor yet men of doubts and scruples; and President Roosevelt owed his overwhelming victory at the polls more clearly and surely to the widespread and well-founded belief that he unequivocally belonged to the first class, and yet more emphatically didn't belong to either of the others, than to any other of its various causes.

It may be worth a moment's pause to note the essential characteristics of the two kinds of politicians and public servants I have last mentioned—those, namely, who don't "do things." From our birth as a Nation until now we have had in public life men, some of them men of conspicuous ability, whose conception of the art of government has been always to find insuperable objections to any imaginable course of action, and who perpetually discover in our Federal Constitution marvels of impotency,

The most fateful and tragic exhibition of the statesmanship taught in this school was undoubtedly President Buchanan's policy towards Secession; but a comparatively unimportant incident, happening some sixty years earlier, curiously illustrated its merits. We had been compelled to send a small squadron to the Mediterranean by reason of piratical depredations on our commerce on the part of the Barbary powers. The United States schooner *Enterprise*, forming part of this force, was attacked, without any provocation, by a Tripolitan "polacca" of somewhat superior strength, whose captain probably mistook her for a merchantman. After a sharp engagement and severe loss, the corsair surrendered; when, greatly to their own astonishment, the surviving Tripolitans and their vessel were released and sent home with a warning not to molest other American vessels! This edifying proceeding was strictly prescribed by the orders of President Jefferson; who held that, since the Congress had not yet formally declared war against these petty robber States, which were all the time impudently seizing our merchant ships, as well as enslaving and barbarously maltreating our sailors, he could use our navy only to repel actual aggression, could not take the offensive in any form, and, more particularly, could not make prizes. It may be that even to-day some may be found to applaud such scrupulous avoidance of "usurpation" and "centralization" on the part of the Executive.

The other class of public men to whom I have alluded differ from Mr. Lincoln in believing that you can "fool all the people all the time," or, at all events, enough of the people to get and keep

office through their votes. They guess at what the voters want, founding their guesses usually on the assumption that everybody wants to get what belongs to somebody else without paying for it, and then promise forthwith to bring about this hypothetical millennium, if given power, without the least regard to the possibility of doing this, or the consequences of trying to do it. If one such promise doesn't seem to "take," they try another even more extravagant. I have not yet heard a suggestion that the canals of Mars be acquired and exploited by our Government, but this suggestion would bear a close analogy to some which I have heard, especially if it be true that there are no canals in Mars. These statesmen have a touching faith in the people's bad memory; they hope to get power by promising the sun, moon, and stars, and, when the time for performance comes, to find that the voters have forgotten the promise.

Two years have now passed since his choice as President commissioned Theodore Roosevelt to "do things" for the American people. What things has he done? And how well or ill has he done them?

ABROAD

The consent, we may almost say the instinct, of mankind has ever attached peculiar honor for a ruler to the title of "Peace-maker;" no designation has been more coveted by chieftains who longed to live after death in the memory of men: *pacificus*¹ was the legend on coin or arch or statue which each holder of imperial sway saw most gladly coupled with his name. This title has been conferred on our President, not by himself nor by any flatterer, official or private, but by judges no less competent than impartial, foreigners to him and to us, and sustained in their verdict by the assent of the civilized world. The first "thing," or at least the first big "thing," he "did" after his inauguration was to run the risk of rebuff and failure and consequent blame, to forget the precepts

¹ I need hardly pause to point out that *pacificus*, as used in such inscriptions, means, not "peaceful," but *pacem faciens*, the maker (or restorer) of peace. It was applied to many sovereigns (e.g., to Charlemagne) whose reigns were filled with warfare and all the best years of whose lives were spent in arms.

and the precedents of a policy which would shut out our country from international fellowship with nineteen-twentieths of the human race, and to employ all the legitimate influence of a great nation—a nation too strong to be flouted, and in this case too clearly disinterested to be suspected of guile—to restore the incalculable blessing of peace to Russia and Japan and the lands which were their battlefield. Beside this great achievement, his share in promoting the peace of Central America, in staying civil strife in Cuba, in discouraging rebellion in Santo Domingo, seem trifles; but these trifles have served to spare humanity no little bloodshed and misery, and to earn for his country and himself no little credit and respect.

A certain class of talkers and writers among us have been sorely puzzled, and, I am strongly tempted to suspect, just a little chagrined, by the honor he has thus earned and enjoys. For those who protest against drills in the public schools, against reviews at Jamestown, even against tin soldiers as toys, lest we and especially our children be infected with "militarism," it is an enigma and little less than a scandal to have a man with a military record, a friend to the army and to the navy, an advocate of ample provision for the National defense, in short, a true son of Belial, or rather of Moloch, receive the Nobel prize and be distinguished among contemporary rulers as the friend and promoter of peace. Doubtless all this accords well with Washington's admonition that "if we desire to secure peace, it must be known that we are at all times prepared for war;" but these good and wise people have far outgrown the antiquated views of Washington.

As a means to peace, and also as an end only less important than peace itself, this Administration has "done" some "things," and tried or begun to "do" more "things" in furtherance of the "harmony and liberal intercourse with all nations" which the Farewell Address declares to be "recommended by policy, humanity, and interest;" if it has not yet done or completed all it has thus commenced or tried to do, agencies beyond the control of the Executive, and

in some cases even of the Federal Government, will, by the fair-minded, be blamed for the failure or delay. "Harmony" with a nation such as Japan is not fostered by incidents such as the exclusion of Japanese children from the San Francisco schools, nor yet by a discussion, in the press and elsewhere, such as that incident aroused; nevertheless we may now reasonably hope that among the "things done" by the Administration will be counted a settlement of this controversy as satisfactory as blind and narrow prejudice may permit. Moreover, when we seek "liberal intercourse" with foreign nations, it is well to remember that in such matters a one-sided "liberality" is seldom long-lived. Again in the words of the Farewell Address: "It is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another:" *do ut des* is the accepted principle of all rational and successful diplomacy; and when a statesman is compelled to approach foreigners with empty hands, it is unjust and childish to complain if his hands remain empty. The justice and common sense of the American people ought to be, and I believe they will be, fully satisfied with what the Administration has done in this field of its labor; if during the next two years it shall, at last, obtain the really cordial and patriotic support from public opinion and other public servants for which it hopes with unwearied optimism and which is plainly needed to make fruitful for good its consistent policy in South America, in the Antilles, on the Isthmus, and in dealings with the Older Worlds, the four years ending March 4, 1909, will, I venture to predict, bear comparison in this respect with any like period of our National history.

AT HOME

To judge fairly the "things" President Roosevelt has "done," we must have definite ideas as to what "things" the American people wished and chose him to "do." We were troubled then, as we are still, by evils incidental to prodigious National prosperity, and, as a result of this prosperity, phenomenally rapid increase in National and individual wealth. The immense masses of

capital controlled by some men or small groups of men enabled them, through the facilities for corporate organization afforded by our laws and the facilities for personal intercourse afforded by long-distance telephones, wireless telegraphy, ocean cables, and other fruits of modern enlightenment, to form aggregations of productive wealth so vast as to threaten the commercial liberties of our people. Directly, these combinations operated to destroy fair and healthy, by fostering unfair and unhealthy, competition; indirectly, they tended to debauch our politics, our press, the management of our corporations, our State and municipal authorities, and even our courts of justice. Enlightened public opinion had slowly and, on the whole, reluctantly reached the conclusions that these evils could not cure themselves (as many had hoped and said they would), that no general and permanent cure could be reasonably expected from the States, and that a remedy ought to be sought in vigorous, even, if need there were, in drastic, action on the part of the National Government.

To deal with this situation, two more or less definite policies of action and one of inaction competed, and may be said still to compete, for popular approval. The men who made up the things to be reformed were clear that no reform was needed. They said, and say yet (probably they believed, and perhaps they believe even yet), that without such combinations and their incidents the transaction of business on the scale of these days would be impossible and prosperity would disappear. On the other hand, certain speakers and writers advocated, and certain politicians professed to advocate, some avowedly, some with a large measure of self-deception as to their own meaning, and all with greater or less consistency and candor, the destruction, more or less rapid and complete, of the prosperity which had, incidentally and indirectly but undoubtedly, created or fostered the conditions to be cured. To effect this it was proposed, on the one hand, to unsettle practically all existing business relations in the country by a promise of sudden and sweeping but vaguely stated changes in

the tariff; and, on the other, to drive capital out of the country or into hiding by socialistic and confiscatory legislation.

Our President had expressed himself often and emphatically in disapproval of both of these policies: he could not be made to see that our country must go to Mr. Mantalini's "demnition bow-wows" unless, to use an illustration furnished by facts, a monster corporation or trust was allowed to pay only six cents on the hundred pounds for its freight over railways it controlled when its humbler rivals had to pay eighteen cents; but neither could he see the good sense and good morals of a policy which, in last resort, would make everybody in the country poor because a few people in it were too rich for its good and their own, which would kill the goose that laid the golden eggs, not, as in the fable, to seek for them in her body, but to prevent her laying too many of them in a few favored nests. He believed that the Nation could and should regulate and control its productive wealth without destroying this wealth or making it unproductive; and, for his part, he was willing to try to do this; the people believed, as he did, that the thing could be done; the people also believed that he was the man to do it; and, by its votes, the people gave him the job.

I have contrasted "fair and healthy" with "unfair and unhealthy" competition; this contrast is often imperfectly understood, and from the fact arises no little confusion of thought. Every one in trade is supposed by economists, and also by the common law, to be ever striving to reduce the cost or increase the value of what he has to sell, so that he may undersell his rivals, while yet earning for himself a fair profit; this process is held wholesome and salutary by the wisdom and experience of mankind. But our great trusts are usually formed and maintained through competition of another kind altogether: they often, even habitually, crush out dealers who will not join them by underselling the latter without regard to profit or even cost—in short, by losing money themselves that others may likewise lose, and looking for their profits to their undisputed monopoly in the near future, when

they can charge the helpless public whatever may be needful to recoup their temporary loss. Competition such as this means, not a contest of business ability, industry, and thrift, but a contest of endurance, or, in other words, of resources; and it is no less wasteful materially than debasing morally to the community. Moreover, as each species of vermin has its peculiar parasite, the modern trust has bred the blackmailing "independent," the bogus enterprise existing only that it may sell out, whose struggle with the trust it would "bleed," so far as genuine, takes shape in the same cut-throat competition. In these contests of willingness and ability to lose money, the influence, often amounting to absolute control, of the trusts over our great transportation companies has been freely used and very effective; "rebates" and "differentials" and discriminating rates generally have been the most useful weapons of our huge monopolies.

The present Administration has sought to make competition fair and healthful, first, by trying, so far as its resources might permit, to enforce rigidly and impartially the laws which forbid and punish harmful combinations in restraint of trade; secondly, by obtaining and making effective, so far as it could, legislation to prevent any form of discrimination by any kind of common carrier or other public agency for transportation. In both fields of action it has done much hard work; and in both, but particularly in the second, it has accomplished results at least justifying their cost. In large measure "rebates" and their like now belong to the past, and discrimination, if not unknown, has become furtive and covert. Moreover, several of the trusts have been dissolved, in so far at least as agreements or decrees of courts of equity can effect their dissolution, and even those among them once inclined to say with Tweed, "Well! what are you going to do about it?" have been taught the unwisdom of open defiance to the law.

It is a "thing" worth "doing" to teach or remind citizens of any class and all classes that laws exist to be obeyed and not to be evaded; and there is like-

wise need to do this, for the fact now seems to be often forgotten by at least some citizens and with respect to some laws. Thus the statute forbidding laborers on public works of the United States to work more than eight hours in any one day, although obeyed by officers of the Government, had been practically a dead letter for contractors until President Roosevelt first ordered its effective enforcement some fourteen years after it became a law. So completely had the idea that to disobey this act was criminal faded from the minds of those habitually guilty of the offense that many of them protested, and still protest, with sincere indignation against their own prosecution before they should have completed the contracts for which they had made bids supposing they could disregard the law with impunity; they assert a vested right to commit crime!¹

It has been and is the aim of this Administration, an aim pursued with unswerving fidelity during the past two

years, to show all Americans, whether rich or poor and of whatever class or condition in life, that the laws made for their common good demand the prompt and unquestioning obedience of all alike.

These laws, like all things human, may be faulty; if they are, it is the duty, no less than the right, of a good citizen to do what in him lies to make them all that they should be for the general good. But, such as they are, and whatever his judgment of their merits, he deserves the name of a good citizen only if he respects and not if he eludes them. Because, and in so far as, they believe this, and do as they believe, Americans have a government of laws, not of men; and most of all because it has steadfastly sought to foster such belief and assure such obedience, the Federal Administration of the past two years at home claims to have "done things" worthy to be praised for the doing, to have merited the people's trust and deserved well of the country.

EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION

BY ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

THE Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is securing results that far exceed in value any that were foreseen by the general public, or probably, indeed, by Mr. Carnegie himself at the time when his gift was announced. When, in April, 1905, Mr. Carnegie determined to set aside ten million dollars for the establishment of a fund "from which to provide retiring pensions for the teachers of universities, colleges, and technical schools in our country, Canada, and Newfoundland," the opinion rapidly got abroad that the Carnegie Foundation, as the fund when first incorporated was called, constituted a monumental charity. From all parts of the continent letters addressed to Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, the

President of the Foundation, by individuals who felt that their services had entitled them to relief from their lifelong cares, brought appeals for help. The writers apparently believed that the flood-gates of prosperity had been opened to their profession, and that bounties were to be distributed indiscriminately to all who asked. Alas! experience has already made it clear that the financial problems of the Foundation are relatively unimportant. With a fair approach to accuracy, the financial limitations of the fund have already been defined. The pension roll will probably never include at any given time more than four hundred names, representing a probable maximum of one hundred and fifty institutions and three thousand professors. In a short time the pensions, having once been allotted, will distribute themselves all but automatically; but when that time arrives, the major work of the Found-

¹It should be said that the constitutionality of this statute has been recently questioned, and further prosecutions under it deprecated until after that question shall have been passed upon by the Supreme Court; no criticism of this suggestion is, of course, intended.

dation will still for the most part remain to be done.

Charity, as ordinarily conceived, has never been the inspiration of Mr. Carnegie's benefactions. The greatest gift which he and his fellow captains of industry have brought to the Nation is not represented by sums of money; their lives have taught them the significance and uses of efficiency, and to lead the Nation along the roads of efficiency appears to be Mr. Carnegie's aspiration. Libraries were making a desultory progress through the country. They sprang up here and there in response to urgent local needs. Scattered communities were gradually learning what libraries might accomplish as instruments of enlightenment. But the Nation at large had no well defined sense of libraries as efficient servants of the democracy until Mr. Carnegie made their distribution almost universal. American inventors were the amazement of the world. In various parts of the country individual scientists were conducting researches of the highest practical and scientific importance. And yet the scientific spirit had not penetrated the Nation. In systematic application of science to industry we trudged like an undisciplined mob behind the well-marshaled forces of Germany. In co-ordinating the work of many investigators, and in concentrating their scattered light upon the fundamental riddle of life, we lagged behind both France and England. Science, though strong in its individual disciples, was not efficient in its service to the Nation at large. It needed organization and discipline; and to this end Mr. Carnegie established, in 1902, the Carnegie Institution at Washington, with an endowment equal to those of the Royal Society of London, the Academies of Science at Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and Rome, the Royal Institution of London, and the Smithsonian Institution combined, with the largest freedom to perform for America the offices which these societies administered in Europe. It showed, therefore, a curious misapprehension of the spirit in which Mr. Carnegie is accustomed to disperse his wealth to suppose that the Carnegie Foundation was a charity fund. It might have been perceived at the beginning

that the promotion of efficiency in our educational life was the principal end he had in view.

How, it may be said, is a fund of ten millions of dollars, the revenue from which has been specifically appropriated to "retiring pensions for the teachers of universities, colleges, and technical schools in our country, Canada, and Newfoundland," going to promote educational efficiency in America? Let us answer question with question. How many people are there in the United States who know the number of colleges and universities supported by the people of the Nation? How many of us know what the educational status of these institutions is? To what extent are they co-operative in their effort to develop a national as well as a local and provincial intelligence? In Germany, for example, there are twenty-one universities. All of these are under the general supervision of Ministers of Education. With a splendidly varied equipment, and representing through their professors every conceivable religious, social, political, and scientific point of view, they are all inspired by large considerations of national policy. They are united in their educational standard and in their aspiration to promote the welfare not only of Prussia, let us say, or Bavaria, but of Germany as a nation. Institutions of higher learning in Germany, though under the immediate jurisdiction of the several States in the Empire, are permeated by a national rather than by provincial ideals. In America there are some seven hundred institutions calling themselves universities, colleges, and technical schools. They represent no common aspiration whatever, no uniformity of standard, but "every possible grade of academic development and every possible degree of State and denominational control." Where there is so much incoherence, there must be great waste of power on the part of both professors and students. Where there is blind absorption in local and individual problems, there must be striking inefficiency from a larger, from a national, point of view.

What has the Carnegie Foundation done, what does it plan to do, to correct this evil, to co-ordinate the activities

of hundreds of institutions and make them efficient instruments of education to the Nation?

In his letter to the twenty-five men to whom he intrusted the administration of the Foundation Mr. Carnegie limited in the following wise the application of his gift. "The fund," he wrote, "applies to universities, colleges, and technical schools, without regard to race, sex, creed, or color. We have, however, to recognize that State and Colonial governments which have established or mainly supported universities, colleges, or schools, may prefer that their relation shall remain exclusively with the State. I cannot, therefore, presume to include them. There is another class which States do not aid, their Constitution in some cases even forbidding it, viz., sectarian institutions. Many of these, established long ago, were truly sectarian, but to-day are free to all men of all creeds or of none—such are not to be considered sectarian now. Only such as are under the control of a sect, or require trustees (or a majority thereof), officers, faculty, or students to belong to any specified sect, or which impose any theological test, are to be excluded."

When President Pritchett and his administrative associates came to execute their trust, they found that there was no way of determining what institutions were, not only under denominational or State control, but, properly speaking, colleges, universities, or technical schools at all. These names in America, they found, represented anything from a grammar school or academy to institutions like Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Before they could proceed with their pensioning plan they needed to determine what, under the circumstances, these names did, or for practical purposes should, signify. This work of definition and the resultant work of classification, though incidental to Mr. Carnegie's plan, proved, as by-products so often do, to be of even greater value from the point of view of educational progress than the pensions themselves.

To begin with, a circular was sent out in the early part of last summer asking for information relative to (a) the educational standards of the institution, (b)

the relation of each institution to the State, both in matters of control and support, and (c) the relation of each institution to religious denominations. This circular was addressed to six hundred and twenty-seven institutions in the United States and Canada. From four hundred and twenty-one of these replies had been received on November 11, 1906. But chaos had been brought only nearer home. Before these answers could be satisfactorily classified, Dr. Pritchett and his associates had to agree upon a definition of a college, in order that they might in turn be able to recognize an academy or high school when it called itself a college, and a college when it called itself a university.

If the definition was to be of any far-reaching value, it was important that it should be as little arbitrary as conditions would allow. A fairly good definition of a college already existed in the statutes of the State of New York. In the Revised Ordinances of the State of New York the following definition occurs: "An institution to be ranked as a college must have at least six professors giving their entire time to college and university work, a course of four full years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the pre-academic or grammar school studies."

Even here, however, it will be observed, some ambiguity still exists. What is meant by the "usual four years of academic or high school preparation," not only in New York, but in the country at large? Furthermore, how does this definition affect the status of technical schools, and what implication does it make with regard to the financial security of institutions designated as colleges?

To these questions the Foundation has made the following succinct and interesting answers: "The usual four years of high school preparation" is equivalent to fourteen courses in a given subject with recitations five times a week for one year, each course so defined being designated a "point." To be ranked as a college, an institution must have a productive endowment of not less

than two hundred thousand dollars. And a technical school to be ranked as a college "must have entrance and graduation requirements equivalent to those of the college, and must offer courses in pure and applied sciences of an equivalent grade."

When the eagerness of educational institutions to be admitted to the benefits of the Foundation is taken into consideration, it will be seen what an important instrument of standardization these definitions are destined to become. Associations of colleges and universities both in the West and the East have attempted to accomplish the result aimed at by the Foundation; but they have never possessed similar financial resources to alleviate the pains which always attend educational growth.

The term college having been defined, it was necessary to make a more accurate description of a denominational institution than Mr. Carnegie's letter of gift provided. In addition to the institutions comprehended in the scope of Mr. Carnegie's sentence cited above, it was determined by the Foundation that a clause should be added requiring the trustees of all institutions in any way associated with religious sects, and applying for admission to the benefits of the fund, to certify by resolution to the trustees of the Foundation not only that no denominational test is imposed in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, or in the admission of students, but that no denominational tenets or doctrines are taught to the students.

On the basis of this classification, and omitting State institutions, toward which the attitude of the Foundation has not yet been definitely fixed, only fifty-two universities, colleges, and technical schools have been admitted to the benefits of the Foundation and placed upon the "accepted list." Of these, twenty-two are in New England and New York alone, whereas only one, Tulane University, of New Orleans, is in the South; and even Tulane has been admitted on the ground of entrance requirements to be adopted in 1907. Vanderbilt University and the Randolph-Macon Woman's College, excluded from the "list" for denominational reasons, are

the only two other institutions of higher learning south of Mason and Dixon's line whose entrance requirements are up to the standard adopted by the Foundation. The discrepancy between the admission and graduation requirements revealed by these figures can hardly be accounted for by considerations of local needs. Provincialism, and reluctance or inability to keep astride of the times, seem to be responsible for much of it. Some outside power is needed to bring the standards together.

How the work of standardization will proceed may be observed in the results which the Foundation hopes to accomplish in the South. Dr. Pritchett and his associates have made a careful examination of the educational conditions in that section. They have found that the status of education in Virginia is in many respects typical, and that the relation of the University of Virginia to the secondary schools is characteristic. They believe that if the University of Virginia could be persuaded to assume an attitude of leadership, it might render services of the highest value to the educational and consequently to the social and economic life of the South. The situation is approximately this: The University of Virginia is justly proud of its splendid history. Many distinguished men have been enrolled, not only on its faculty, but among its graduates. It boasts of its large annual enrollment, of the severity of its examinations, and of the abnormal number of students who annually fail in the examinations and are consequently dismissed from its halls. This last point is noteworthy; it has been especially emphasized and has secured special consideration. Upon investigation, it has been learned that while Harvard, for example, requires sixteen "points" for admission, the University of Virginia requires not more than six and a half. Many scores of boys are annually admitted to the University who should, therefore, be at the beginning of their third year in the high school. At mid-years, or in their sophomore year, owing primarily to their inadequate preparation for college work, great numbers of them are "flunked." Now, a college "man" will not endure the hu-

miliation of returning to the preparatory school. The system consequently results in the demoralization of the educational careers of many students. This is its first and most flagrant evil. But the result of the system upon secondary education in Virginia, and therefore in great measure upon that of the South, is possibly more far-reaching and more pernicious in its influence. In discussing the effect of the low standard of the University's entrance requirements upon secondary education, the principal of one of the high schools of Virginia said: "We cannot keep our students if the University is willing to accept them when they ought to be beginning the third year of their high school work. It is unreasonable to suppose that any boy is going to remain a 'prep' when he can become a college 'man.' If the colleges would stiffen their entrance requirements, we should be able to develop the high school curriculum. The high schools are ready to do their duty if the colleges will do theirs, and the time has come when carelessness in this matter is sure to retard the entire educational life of the South."

In commenting upon this situation, President Pritchett observed that he and the Trustees of the Foundation had no desire to interfere in any way with the free and wise development of education in accordance with the needs of varying environments, or to force up colleges which ought to be junior colleges or academies into a position in advance of the requirements of education. But they do believe, he declared, that any hope for advance in either higher or secondary institutions of learning depends very largely upon the willingness of the men in charge of them to come to some fair agreement as to the line which should separate the college from the academy or the high school. The University of Virginia, as well as other colleges of the South, has been urgently invited to adopt a standard which will make it eligible to the benefits of the Foundation. And as an earnest of the spirit in which the appeal has been made, the Trustees of the Foundation have voted generous retiring allowances to five distinguished men "who have served conspicuously

the cause of education in Virginia." At the head of these stands the name of Professor Noah K. Davis, of the University of Virginia.

I have emphasized the significance of the Foundation's work of standardization, because its far-reaching effects were hardly foreseen by the Trustees of the Foundation themselves, and because it illustrates, more perfectly than the pension system projected in Mr. Carnegie's letter of gift, the founder's eagerness to promote efficiency in every department of public life, and more particularly in every branch of public education. But great good has already been accomplished by the distribution of retiring allowances, and much injustice has been corrected. Up to October 1, 1906, eighty-eight pensions had been granted—forty-five to professors in "accepted" institutions, thirty-five to individual professors, and eight to the widows of professors. The total amount expended has been \$122,130, an average of \$1,387 a person per annum. The average allowance to professors in "accepted" institutions is \$1,552; to individual professors, \$1,302; and to widows, \$833. Dr. Pritchett's assertion to the effect that pensions have been granted in each case, not as a charity, but as a right, is substantiated by the presence upon the list of pensioners of such names as those of Professor Noah K. Davis, of the University of Virginia, already referred to; Professor Francis A. March, of Lafayette College; Professor Hiram Corson, of Cornell, and Professor Henry P. Bowditch, of Harvard.

It is undoubtedly pleasant to contemplate the poetic justice which these benefactions consummate; but even here Mr. Carnegie's major intention must be borne in mind. I have already stated that the revenues of the Foundation will at most suffice to provide retiring allowances to some four hundred persons, representing not more than one hundred and fifty institutions and a probable maximum of three thousand professors. Clearly, the value of the Fund will lie as much in its limitations as in its application. It will establish an important precedent for the pension system among educational institutions. In his letter

of gift Mr. Carnegie wrote: "I have reached the conclusion that the least rewarded of all professions is that of the teacher in our higher educational institutions. New York City generously and very wisely provides retiring pensions for teachers in her public schools." The implication is that the pension system for teachers is a just system, and should be established as widely as possible. And the reason why Mr. Carnegie considers the system both just and wise he also states: "Very few indeed of our colleges are able to provide retiring pensions for their teachers. The consequences are grievous. Able men hesitate to adopt teaching as a career, and many old professors whose places should be occupied by younger men cannot be retired. . . . I hope this fund may do much for the cause of higher education"—by removing a source of deep and constant anxiety to the poorest-paid yet one of the highest of all professions. Release from anxiety will of course mean greater freedom of action on the part both of the administrative and professional bodies, and, consequently, greater educational efficiency.

It was in view of the National bearing which the work of the Foundation had assumed that it was decided in the early part of 1906 to exchange the charter which had been granted to the "Carnegie Foundation" by the State of New York for a charter to be obtained from Congress, and to change the name of the institution. Moreover, by the term of the act of Congress by which the "Carnegie Foundation" was enabled to transfer its property to the "Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching," the principal offices of the Foundation are to be maintained at Washington.

At present the Foundation shares the offices, in the capital, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and its work is chiefly conducted from New York City. Sooner or later, however, the transfer to the National capital will be made, and there are already signs of close co-operation between the Foundation and the Federal Bureau of Education.

In history the achievement of the Foundation will probably rank high as pioneer work. Mr. Pritchett and his associates are performing a valuable public service by carrying the principle of pensioning teachers, already applied in some cities like New York, into the Nation at large, by familiarizing the public with the actual status of higher education in the country, by bringing educational institutions into co-operative relations with one another, and by establishing standards which, when generally adopted, will do much to promote efficiency both in the administrative and instructorial departments of American schools and colleges. When the Foundation has taught the country what its duty towards the teachers of its children is, its work will be fully accomplished.

To find the guardian of a vast industry that was fostered in its infancy by the Nation, fostering in turn the growth of infant National institutions, is not only curiously engaging, but of the best omen. Think what the result to the American democracy would be if all public trusts were administered with the conscientious and far seeing wisdom that has marked Mr. Carnegie's private enterprises! Consider what a powerful influence the Carnegie libraries, the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching are exerting towards this end!

THE HUMOR OF THE NATIONS

BY ARTHUR BARTLETT MAURICE

THE end of Émile Augier's most admirable comedy finds the conventional grouping, rascality put to flight, the Duke and Antoinette thoroughly reconciled and looking forward to a happy and united life, but the incorrigible Poirier himself still secretly nursing his ambition for social and political advancement. "We are in 'forty-six," he says, in a final aside; "I shall be Député from Presles in 'forty-seven, and a Peer of France in 'forty-eight." Now at first sight there is in this nothing intrinsically funny. Yet not only when "Le Gendre de M. Poirier" was first presented in 1855 did the line move Parisian audiences to howls of merriment, but it is still regarded and referred to as one of the most admirable specimens of wit to be found in French comedy. The whole point lies in the fact that the audiences of 1855 still remembered keenly what the boastful Poirier, in 1846, could not foresee: that the revolution of 1848, which overthrew the Government of Louis Philippe and established the Second Republic, had entirely abolished all titles in France. It is an admirable illustration of a rare form of wit. It is not only essentially French, but it turns on the events of a brief two years of French history; yet the political explanation makes it of immediate appeal to the cultivated man or woman of any nation. Regarding it simply as a stage stroke, it was irresistible at the time of its presentation; to-day, even in France, in a new play it would have little effect; elsewhere it would be lost entirely.

Fundamentally the wit of all nations rests much on the same bases—it is drawn from the same common stock. The differences lie in the form of presentation, the stamp. A nation's wit may be compared to a nation's money. A French twenty-franc piece in a shop in Bond Street or Piccadilly, an English sovereign in the Rue de la Paix—provided each rings true and is of full weight—both are likely to be accepted without

the slightest hesitation, just as among cultivated people of any nation the gold pieces of wit will be appraised at their just value. Yet in Cornwall or Gascony the napoleon or the sovereign will be scanned suspiciously, while the two-franc piece or the half-crown, in the wrong place, will be found utterly useless. It is the baser metal. The whimsical analogy of wit and money may be carried further. As there is a close relation between the currencies of the Latin peoples, so is there in their wit. As the currency of Spain, for example, has depreciated to such a point that in some parts of that country the bankers' signs read, "English, French, German, and American Money Exchanged," and then beneath, as an afterthought, "Also Spanish Gold;" so the Spanish wit of to-day is an ironic reflection on the period of national grandeur and the splendid traditions of Cervantes.

There are certain situations, relations, and institutions which have always stood as objects of the common laughter. Wit everywhere has always interpreted them in much the same way, and to them no one nation may be said to have brought any really distinctive note. Take the most hackneyed and familiar of all butts. Quite at random, one may choose from five or six different languages four and twenty hits at the expense of the mother-in-law, and no one will be able to say that this concerned a French household, that an Italian, or that a Swiss. The young or the old dandy who resorts to stratagem, takes to his heels, or avoids certain streets in order to evade the importunities of the long-suffering tailor or bootmaker; the lawyer discomfited by the witness whom he is trying to bully—these and twenty others are the stock comic situations which belong not only to all countries but to all times, which were quite familiar in ancient Athens and Rome, and which have come down to us through the centuries without material change. It is not by any means that the wit founded on the comedy of

manners has not had strong and marked national characteristics always. But for the sharpest lines of contrast one must turn to the fields of national dislike, jealousy, and prejudice.

Since the time of Hogarth, and probably long before, national prejudice has been one of the sturdiest bulwarks and the most vigorous inspirations of British humor. What a glaring gap there would be in the comic literature of England if one could take away everything based on the parsimony of the Scotch, the liking for drink and the Donnybrook Fair proclivities of the Irish, the blustering pretense of the Yankees, and the general ineptitude and all-round shortcomings of the French! As we turn over the old pages and glance at the old pictures of the men whose names stand for the British wit and humor of the Victorian Era, what a fine contempt for the foreigner is evident! The shafts of wit aimed at the foibles and frivolities at home are pointed enough, but we realize that it is all strictly *en famille*. Thackeray castigates the snobs of England, laying on the lash with an unsparing hand; but suppose some German or American critic of the time had written slightly of the Barnes Newcomes, the Lord Farintoshes, the Steynses, of British society? Would not the great satirist have been the first to be outraged in his feelings, and the loudest in his cry of "hands off"? What frank dislike underlies his portraits of the ridiculous Alcide of "Pendennis," of M. de Castillommes of "The Newcomes," of Frenchmen in general! When Dickens gave us a thoroughgoing British scoundrel or hypocrite, he hastened to atone for the deed by introducing half a dozen personages of benevolent mien and amiable disposition; but where, Americans may well ask, are the redeeming countrymen of Colonel Diver and General Choke? What a fierce and intolerant patriotism was that of George Cruikshank and John Leech! How valiantly they expended the heritage of hatred that had come down to them from Rowlandson and Gillray! You cannot follow Leech through any single month of Punch jokes and pictures without perceiving how deep-rooted was his conviction of the complete superiority of everything

British. Had he been otherwise, his hold on the affections of the English fun-loving public would have been far different. Every man whose business it has been to amuse the British readers has felt this influence. Du Maurier, half Frenchman that he was, could never wholly break away from it. There have been long periods in the latter half of the nineteenth century when it was as necessary, in order to conform with the national ideas of humor, to depict a Frenchman as insecure in his saddle and ill at ease in the hunting field as it was in 1800 to present him with pigtail and curl-papers, his shoulders always higher than his ears, and invariably saying, "By gar! aha! vat you tell me, sare!"

The parsimony of the Scotch may be exaggerated, and it may not be; but certainly Scotsmen have not been responsible for perpetuating the legend. The Scotch humor is too canny. The reason that the world at large regards parsimony as a national characteristic is wholly due to the cumulative effect of the jokes on this score that have found expression south of the Tweed. Ask the average American for an example of Scotch humor and he will probably offer the story of the disconsolate Highlander bemoaning the exactions of London: "A turrible place, Sandy; I hadna' been here twa hours when bang went sax-pence!"

It would be as absurd to attempt to analyze the comic genius of the English as it would be to offer that specious but perfectly preposterous saying that the English have humor but no wit, and the French wit but no humor. One can draw definite conclusions about nations like Germany and Italy; but in countries which have been so rich in comic expression as England and France, all that one can do is to indicate certain subtle lines of distinction. For example, the well-dressed inebriate is a valuable asset to the English fun-maker; he is seldom a factor in the Continental joke. It is not that he does not exist, he simply does not amuse. But in English humor there have been thousands of precursors to the pictorial skit of a few weeks ago which shows a happy but helpless gentleman who has mistaken a drinking foun-

tain, and, with the tin cup pressed to his ear, is mumbling, "2747 Girard, please, Mish." There is not space here for more than brief mention of the stock butts of the British joke—the coster and the cockney, the irascible army officer on half-pay, the over-zealous subaltern, the countryman with his burr, and the various ridiculous figures of the hunting-field. As an example of the English comic spirit, which is perhaps wit, and perhaps humor, and perhaps a combination of both, let us take a scene from an almost forgotten play by Richard Steele. The play is "The Funeral," and the undertaker Sable is talking to his employees about their duties:

Sable. Ha, you! A little more upon the dismal (forming their countenances); this fellow has a good mortal look—place him near the corpse; that wainscot face must be o' top of the stairs; that fellow's almost in a fright (that looks as if he were full of some strange misery) at the end of the hall. So—but I'll fix you all myself. Let's have no laughing now on any provocation. Look yonder, that hale, well-looking puppy! You ungrateful scoundrel, did I not pity you, take you out of a great man's service, and show you the pleasure of receiving wages? *Did I not give you ten, then fifteen, and twenty shillings a week to be sorrowful—and the more I give you I think the gladder you are!*

The French have not only been conscious of their own wit, but at times they have been conscious of it to the blind exclusion of the wit of other nations. Some of the greatest French humorists have been utterly unable to appreciate or even to understand the humor of other peoples. When the work of Mark Twain was shown to the late Alphonse Daudet, the creator of Tartarin was quite honest in saying that he could see nothing amusing in Tom Sawyer or Huckleberry Finn. Renan believed so implicitly in the supremacy of the French comic genius that he maintained that, whatever their speech, all nations should be taught to laugh in French. Chamfort said of the old régime that it was "an absolute monarchy tempered by good sayings." Even in adversity the French have never forgotten to laugh and have always demanded that they be amused. In the days of the Revolution, in one column of the paper would appear the lists of the victims of the guillotine and in another

the evening's entertainments. If you will look through the Parisian press during the terrible months of the siege and the Commune, you will find no diminution in the amount of jokes printed.

The ignorance of the French in matters outside of their own country is not merely an impression of foreigners. It is frequently a butt for the boulevard joke-makers. When Thackeray, in "Vanity Fair," represented a certain French duchess receiving from Miss Crawley a letter denouncing the former Becky Sharp, and being unable to read a word of it because she had been only twenty years in England and consequently had no knowledge of the language, he was sounding a note that has had constant repetition in French jests. In one of his best jokes the imitable Cham played upon it at the time of the Exposition of 1867. There were a great number of eminent strangers in Paris, and Cham, with delicious irony, drew up a code of ceremonial for the use of the Parisians: "When you are presented to a foreign sovereign, the most polite thing to do is to leap through the ring in his nose. Otherwise," he adds, with a superb gravity that is worthy of Swift, "he might think that you had come merely for your amusement."

A figure which belongs essentially and entirely to French jest is that of Joseph Prudhomme. The type itself is as old as Molière; but the name—which is diagnostic—and the particular character was the invention (in 1857) of Henri Monnier. Prudhomme is the incarnation of the pompous, purse-proud, bourgeois spirit which has been so hated and so unsparingly pursued by French artists and men of letters. He is a compound of vanity, greed, and cunning prudence; an oracle of the smug commonplace. His morality is a pretense and a sham. He delights in red tape and the assumption of petty official authority, and in certain moments likes to play at being a soldier in service in the National Guard. In this last respect Balzac anticipated Monnier by his portrait of Crevel in "Les Parents Pauvres."

In England two phases of the artistic life in especial have been subjected to satire. One has to do with the proverbial—in all times and countries—indi-

gence of the author, the painter, and the actor; the other with the various ephemeral literary fads and the postures of the exquisites and the eccentrics in whom Du Maurier found such huge delight. In France the artistic life is held up to laughter under twenty different aspects. You see the poet not only in his garret, but also rejoicing in his favored haunts. You become acquainted with his affectations, his jealousies, his loves, and his hyberboles. Another phase of French, and in fact Continental, jest will not be discussed at any great length here. Brilliant as some of the wit that has played about it has been, it is not *virginibus puerisque*. The spirit is the same in the complications of Molière's "George Dandin" and in the farce of "Labiche," which shows the wife chalking the hours of appointment on her husband's back for the information of her lover.

The distinctive contribution of Italy to humor has been the pasquinade. Some four hundred years ago Pasquino was a fashionable tailor in Rome. His shop was the place where many eminent Romans met to exchange the gossip and scandal of the day. Pasquino was a wit himself, and his epigrams upon conspicuous persons were so much repeated that in time he was credited with every bit of witty malice, and those who started a bitter jest attributed the satire to the tailor as a matter of safety. Here is a typical political pasquinade which appeared at a time when Italians were wishing for the death of Ferdinand II. of Naples, called King Bomba. Pasquino imagines a traveler just arrived from Naples, and asks him for the latest news:

"I have seen a tumor" (*tumore*). "A tumor? But what is a tumor?" "For answer take away the t." "Ah! a humor" (*umore*). "But is this humor dangerous?" "Take away the u." "He dies! what a pity! But when? Shortly?" "Take away the m." "Hours! In a few hours! But who, then, has this humor?" "Take away the o." "King! The king! I am delighted. But, then, where will he go?" "Take away the r." "E-e-eh!"

As an indication of the strange contradictions of simplicity and complexity which go to make up the Italian character, the following story is essentially

Italian. Fasolacci is a young man about town who has been spending right and left, and one day finds himself unable to pay his hotel bill. Owing to the avarice of his father, he appeals to his uncle:

Dear Uncle:

If you could see my shame while I write, you would pity me. Do you know why? Because I have to write for one hundred francs and know not how to express my humble gratitude.

No, it is impossible to tell you; I prefer to die.

I send you this by a messenger who awaits an answer.

Believe me, dear uncle, to be your most obedient and affectionate nephew,

FASOLACCI.

P. S.—Overcome with shame for what I have written, I have been running after the messenger, in order to take the letter, but I could not catch up. Heaven grant that something may happen to stop him, or that this letter may get lost!

The uncle is touched, considers, and replies:

My beloved Nephew:

Console yourself, and blush no longer. Providence heard your prayer. The messenger lost your letter.

Good-by. Your affectionate uncle,

ARISTIPPO.

Despite the comparatively high order of excellence of such comic papers as *Fliegende Blätter*, *Simplicissimus*, and *Der Wahre Jacob*, the contention that German humor shows no sense of measure and no instinctive tact is by no means unsound. Germany, it must be remembered, has never produced a great comic dramatist or a great satirist. Another thing to be remembered in studying the German humor of the past fifty years is that much of that nation's comic talent has come to the United States and found its expression amid new surroundings. As in France one of the most popular subjects for jest is the soldier (the *piou piou*), so in Germany the comic writers find a rich field in the awkwardness of the new recruit and the arrogant authority of the drill-sergeant. A beautiful illustration of the cumbersome spirit of the national humor is found in the German version of Punch's advice to people about to marry. Instead of the brief and illuminating "Don't" of English wit we have, "If you are going to be married, my son, I will give you

some good advice." "And what is it?" "You had better not."

Thirty years ago the infantile simplicity and tameness of the average German joke impressed James Parton, who, from the comic press of that period, selected the following as typical:

Two young girls, about twelve, are sitting upon a bench in a public garden. Two dandies walk past, who are dressed alike and resemble one another. "Tell me, Fannie," says one of the girls, "are not those two gentlemen brothers?" This is the reply: "One of them is, I know for certain; but I am not quite sure about the other."

A strapping woman, sooty, wearing a man's hat, and carrying a ladder and brushes, is striding along the street. The explanation vouchsafed is the following: "The very eminent magistrate has determined to permit the widow of the meritorious chimney-sweep, Spazzicamino, to continue the business."

A silly-looking gentleman is seen conversing with a lady upon whom he has called, while a number of cats are playing about the room. "Why have you so many cats?" he asks. The lady replies: "Well, you see, my cook kept giving warning because I locked up the milk and meat, so I got the cats as a pretext."

Two noble ladies chatting over their tea: "Only think, my dear, we are obliged to discharge our man." "Why?" "Oh, he begins to be too familiar. What do you think? I saw him cleaning the boots, and I discovered, to my horror, that he had my husband's boots, my son's, and *his own*, all mixed together!"

Yet, despite the absolute absence of any sort of tradition, Germany to-day has a certain conceded place in the wit of the nations, and this is entirely due to the individual achievement and the influence of Wilhelm Busch. The distinctive contribution of Germany to pictorial humor has been the series of pictures without words or with very few words. Perhaps in this line Busch has never quite attained the comic effects of Caran d'Ache, but the breadth of his humor and its heart appeal have won him an audience vastly larger than that of the brilliant Frenchman. Some of his creations, like *Max und Moritz*, *Hans Hucklebein*, and *Plisch und Plum*, have become universal possessions; it is not Goethe or Schiller that in the Fatherland one hears often quoted, but the homely lines of Busch, whose drawings are published in editions as large as those of the American popular novel.

THE SPIRIT OF THE GAME

BY LUTHER HALSEY GULICK

WE cannot imagine a man writing a great poem just because he thought he ought to—that it was his duty. He might do a creditable piece of work, correct in every particular, and one that would pass muster with the critics; but it would not be great. Great achievements are not brought about in that way. Something else enters into them. Kipling did not write the "Barrack Room Ballads," with their wonderful swing and force, because he had to. When Lincoln was composing his superb Gettysburg Oration, he was not sacrificing himself to a necessity, or trying to do merely what he thought was right—he was moved by a great and exalting desire, the desire to give expres-

sion to his deepest feelings of reverence and affection and patriotism. It was without doubt an obligation for him to pay his tribute; but it was something more than a sense of duty that called forth immortal words like those.

And so of every man who makes himself count largely in the world's affairs: the explorer who penetrates into the inaccessible ice-fields of the North, the artist who paints his soul into a picture, the financier who causes idle capital to become richly productive, the teacher who calls forth the best possibilities in his students, the scientist who gives up his life to patient research in the laboratory—these men are not actuated merely by a sense of duty.

I have had the fortune to know personally a number of successful inventors and to watch them at work. What has struck me most is that the inventor himself does not seem to be *working* at all. There is no compulsion, so far as he is concerned. Without any direction on his part, some force has laid hold of his mind, has harnessed him complete, drives him day and night, during meal times and during rest times, and will not let him go until it has been embodied in visible form. This is a creative idea. It is not duty. The man surrenders himself to it gladly, indifferent to the cost, indifferent, almost, to the consequences, feeling only the powerful and exhilarating joy of realizing concretely the idea that has been born in his brain.

It is in this spirit that most men who have made great contributions to humanity have done their work. Think of Charles Darwin. He had hit upon a tremendous hypothesis—organic evolution through natural selection. It was revolutionary; to follow it would make him enemies everywhere; he would be called an opponent of religion, a traitor to humanity. Darwin did not think twice; he could not; there was only one way for him. An idea had taken possession of his whole being—and it was he who made the greatest contribution to human thought in the last century. There was a “must” here, perhaps; but it was not the “must” of duty; it was the “must” of passionate surrender to an ideal.

In fighting for their homes and for the preservation of their rights, the Continental Army were doing their duty; but how different was their attitude from that of the Hessians! I am perfectly well aware that the word “duty” has many shades of meaning, and that I have deliberately selected one. But is not this perhaps as profound a meaning as any?

When a boy has rigged up a little paddle-wheel in the stream in the meadow, and has devised a way by which a thread may be attached to the axle and a small block of wood hauled up against the current, he has been doing *essentially* the same thing as Edison when he has been evolving a new elec-

trical attachment. In the absorption of the occupation he has forgotten all about his meals; everything else has become of no consequence; the enthusiasm and joy of a certain ideal have taken possession of him. That is play. It is the spontaneous enlistment of the entire personality in the pursuit of some coveted end. We do not *have* to pursue this goal; we wish to; it is our main desire. In the light of it all other things—dinners, or punishments, or the world’s opinion—become inconsequential. We have not taken possession of the idea, the idea has taken possession of us.

In play the whole personality is absorbed. There is nothing perfunctory, nothing done by routine, nothing mechanical. This is the spirit in which the greatest discoveries are made, the greatest fortunes built up, the greatest poems written.

What is it that keeps the financier still engaged in great commercial transactions long after he has accumulated enough to meet all his needs and those of his family? It is because he likes the game; it absorbs him; it is not merely his business—it is his greatest satisfaction, his “play.”

Walt Whitman wrote his poems on that sort of an impulse; it was in them that his powerful and astonishing personality found its fitting expression. You feel in every line of “Leaves of Grass” the wonderful vitality of the man, his enthusiasm, his passion for humanity. Never a line was written in response to a sense of duty. Whitman *was* conscious, perhaps, of a message to give; but he gave it because he simply could not keep it to himself, not because his conscience forced him.

The little girl who spends the whole afternoon quietly in the corner attending to every need of her sick doll, refusing to surrender her responsibility to another—she is the same person who later on in life keeps watch day and night beside the bed of her sick baby, aware even in sleep of every motion that the little sufferer makes. The attitude of the mother to the baby is identical with the attitude of the little girl to her doll.

Well, what reason is there for the little

girl's being so concerned about the welfare of her doll? Psychologically that would not be easy to explain. But it is clear that there is no sense of compulsion there; the care is given spontaneously, eagerly, in response to an idea. And the mother-spirit, thus expressing itself in so many of life's relations, is one of the most precious and most dynamic influences in the whole world. Which is the same thing as saying that the spirit in which "play" is the motive force is the most dynamic, the most effective spirit for the solution of any vital problem.

It is the way in which we take the responsibilities and problems of life that makes it either a deadly bore—a mere dull round of routine and drudgery—or the most interesting and absorbing game, capable of enlisting all the energy and enthusiasm we have to put into it. The people who accomplish things are the people who play the game. They let themselves go; they are not afraid.

There is a good reason at the basis of all this. The fact is that a higher state of personality is involved in play than in "work." Under the stimulus and enthusiasm of play, muscles contract more powerfully and longer than under other conditions. Blood-pressure is higher in play. The man who eats because he is hungry, and enjoys every mouthful of food, has a far better chance of having a good digestion than the man who simply eats because he thinks he ought to—because his doctor has directed it.

We accomplish really great things only when we can bring to bear all the forces of our personality. This cannot be done by sheer will-power. There must be love and enthusiasm and joy, an interest that will absorb and dominate us. Effort will not produce this. It is a matter of attitude.

The mother who loves her child will do for it much the same sort of thing as the nursery-maid who is merely doing her duty; but there will be a difference in the quality of the influence exerted, and in the result.

It is far more interesting to play the game than to work at it. When you work, you are being driven. When you

play, you do the driving yourself. To be your own master is pleasanter than being mastered. And there is more satisfaction in doing one's best, in doing a thing artistically and right, than in doing what is after all a merely creditable job. Some of the old violin-makers could hardly bear to part with the instruments they had made; it was like giving up a part of themselves. They loved their violins. They were conscious of having done fine work; they had made an art out of their business. It was their play. So it is with every piece of work to which we have given the best that is in us. It satisfies us profoundly.

We play, not by jumping the traces of life's responsibilities, but by going so far beyond life's compulsions as to lose all sight of the compulsion element.

Two small sisters I know of had been cross and out of sorts.

"Let's play being sisters," said Emeline. So they played, and had a lovely time together.

What was the difference between playing sisters and being sisters? Merely a matter of idealization.

I like that stirring poem of Henry Newbolt's, where the "spirit of the game" saves the day for the British regiment—makes a hero of every man:

"There's a breathless hush in the Close to-night—
Ten to make and the match to win—
A bumping pitch and a blinding light,
An hour to play and the last man in.
And it is not for the sake of a ribboned coat
Or the selfish hope of a season's fame,
But his Captain's hand on his shoulder
smote—
'Play up! play up! and play the game!'

The sand of the desert is sodden red,—
Red with the wreck of the square that
broke;—
The Gatling's jammed and the Colonel dead,
And the regiment blind with dust and
smoke.
The river of death has brimmed his banks,
And England's far and Honor a name,
But the voice of a schoolboy rallies the ranks:
'Play up! play up! and play the game!'

This is the word that year by year,
While in her place the School is set,
Every one of her sons must hear,
And none that hears it dare forget,
This they all with a joyful mind
Bear through life like a torch in flame,

And falling fling to the host behind—

'Play up! play up! and play the game!'

There was a transformation certainly, yet as simple and logical as any of the others. A regiment exhausted and disorganized, facing nothing but utter defeat. The sharp, ringing call of the old cricket-field: "Play up! Play the game!" It was an injection of new energy.

Translated it meant: Fix your mind on the thing to be done; forget every-

thing else—your own feelings, your fear, your discouragement. Throw your whole personality into this thing, and carry it through to a finish. Play the game!

This motive or conception, which is caught by the spirit of the day in the phrase, "Play the game!" is the deepest motive in the life of many people, particularly men. Deeply analyzed, it looks back to faithfulness to one's comrades, the being true to the life one is living—to living on an ideal level.

THE HOHENLOHE MEMOIRS'

WHEN the German edition of Prince Hohenlohe's Memoirs appeared, there was a great sensation. For the first time the story of Prince Bismarck's resignation was apparently told in full. For the first time, too, some secret motives which had dictated recent German policy were laid bare. It was no wonder that the papers were full of telegraphed excerpts from the work. The handsomely published German original has now been received in this country. It is interesting to compare with it the well-printed and remarkably good English translation which closely follows.

The Memoirs are valuable, first of all, as throwing new light on the development of political Germany during Prince Hohenlohe's life of over fourscore years. This light is notably clear, because we are informed by one who, as narrator, possessed five striking advantages.

First, he was a truthful person. His notes form a surprisingly comprehensive and open presentment of personal and political conditions. Bismarck was called brutally frank. But Hohenlohe was never brutal, if franker than any German chronicler has been.

Secondly, Prince Hohenlohe was a South German. His was the atmospheric Southern geniality, not so characteristic

of the North Germans. Men were everywhere won by that warmth and humanity, and they confided in Hohenlohe, who speedily became an envied repository of knowledge.

Thirdly, the Prince enjoyed an advantage impossible to a Prussian, whose country had for two centuries been preponderant in German politics. It would be surprising if any Prussian narrator of events in Germany were not prejudiced. But Hohenlohe was a Bavarian. He thus had the detachment which every historian should seek. Doubtless, too, one reason for writing his memoirs was that they should be not only a record of past events, but also a warning against a repetition of Bismarckian Prussianized particularism.

Next, this truthful, winsome, judicial observer was a man of action. If birth and residence gave to him a certain detachment, his career did not detach him from the great events which he describes. In them he was not only an actor; he was often one of the chief actors, whether as parliamentarian, as ambassador, as delegate to congresses, as Cabinet Minister, as provincial governor, or, finally, as Imperial Chancellor.

Lastly, a signal advantage lay in the fact that Prince Hohenlohe was a *liberal* Roman Catholic. "I could never bind myself," he says, "to render any assistance to that party [the party of Roman Catholic reaction] without repudiating my whole past inner life and all my most sacred convictions." This breadth of thought was not unnatural, for, though the sons of the elder Hohenlohe were

¹ *Denkwürdigkeiten des Fürsten Chlodwig zu Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst*. Im Auftrage des Prinzen Alexander zu Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Herausgegeben von Friedrich Curtius. In zwei Bände. Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt, Stuttgart und Leipzig.

Memoirs of Prince Chlodwig of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Authorized by Prince Alexander of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Edited by Friedrich Curtius. English Edition. Supervised by George W. Chrystal, B.A. In 2 vols. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$6, net.

brought up as Roman Catholics, the daughters were trained in the faith of their Protestant mother. Religious toleration was thus for them the indispensable condition of domestic happiness.

Thus notably equipped for his work as observer, chronicler, and commentator, we have in these volumes a summary of the results of Prince Hohenlohe's statesmanship and that of others. We hardly know whether we are more interested in the movements themselves or in the men who planned them. To the special student and to the future historian the description of the movements may be the more valuable. But to the general reader the volumes' value lies largely in their anecdotal and reminiscential features. Is it not generally true, indeed, that we learn to know men first, movements second?

Our interest is first of all awakened in the writer of these pages. He was the antithesis of the stolid, stupid type which we see in cartoons and caricatures. His was a courtly refinement, a keen intelligence, which matched that of such Germans as the Bunsens of his day or the Sternburgs of ours. His spiritual nature is shown in a letter to his sister just as he was beginning his political career:

It does one good in the wild tumult of political life to plunge back now and again into better days. It gives one the same feeling to go from time to time into a church, as I love more especially to do now that the beautiful offices for May are being sung in the twilight. For in political work, which is a thing of great utility and most congenial to me, the soul consumes itself."

On the relations of the Prince to his family his sister writes:

We all turned to him when in the slightest doubt or difficulty. His keen judgment and reassuring calm, and the brotherly love which was evident in all his counsels, gave them great weight. . . . At Schillingsfürst one used to go to his little study and sit down in a small armchair beside him at the writing-table, and he would look up from his work and instantly give his whole attention to whatever you had to say. Words cannot describe it; I can still feel his penetrating gaze. . . . I can never cease to admire Chlodwig, and how calm, unselfish, and patient he is in all his actions. Let them say what they will about masculine energy, firmness, and proper self-assertion—that is all very well in its way; but a delicate, noble

mind is an infinitely higher thing. Better to have that alone, without those qualities, than the other way round. To-day he was speaking again of sacred things. I cannot describe the extraordinary impression it makes on me, how it moves me to hear him pronounce the name of Christ; it seems to come from the depths of his heart.

The Prince's sister-in-law says:

We had many a delightful time together in the Austrian Alps, where my husband had rented one of the finest chamois shootings in the country. My sister-in-law threw herself passionately into this noble sport. Her husband fulfilled his duties as a hunter most correctly, but with far less enthusiasm. He took Latin classics with him when out stalking, filling my boys, who were still at the gymnasium in those days, with amazement. I remember being out with him once in his last years. We had a long wait, and to pass the time he recited from memory and without one stumble whole poems of great beauty. In our fine enthusiasm, of course he missed the chamois which were being driven to him.

The character of my brother-in-law always seemed to me to bridge the gulf between two periods. His mind, though deep-rooted in the feudal traditions of his caste, had yet a lively and intuitive sympathy for all the liberal views which have only come to the fore in our modern days. To his benignant philosophy it was given to smooth rough edges, to mediate between conflicting forces. Whether the conflicting elements in his own breast did not bring him frequent suffering none can say; he veiled it in impenetrable silence. His imperturbable calm seemed to me simply the peace after a hard-won victory over self.

Prince Hohenlohe was one of the earliest to realize that evolution into unity must needs come, whether or no. Said he, "Deep in the hearts of all Germans lives an inspiring belief in a unified, free, and powerful German Fatherland." He could not bear to think that Germany was broken up into fragments, and weak fragments at that.

No one will deny that it is hard on a thinking, energetic man to be unable to say abroad, "I am a German!" . . . and not to have to explain, "I am a Hessian, a Darmstädter, a Buckeburger; my Fatherland was once a great and mighty nation, now it is shattered into eight and thirty splinters."

He grasped at the idea of the 1848 Constituent Assembly, convoked from all Germany, and when that Parliament appointed the Archduke John as "Imperial Administrator" for Germany and Austria, when the Archduke appointed an Imperial Ministry, and the Ministry

intrusted Prince Hohenlohe to notify the courts of Athens, Rome, and Florence of the Archduke's accession, the young envoy gladly fulfilled the commission. Alas that this hope of Imperial unity (like the Frankfort Congress of 1862, to which the Prince was a member) was to last but a few months, and reduce Prince Hohenlohe's activities to those of the Bavarian Upper Chamber!

This, however, did not prevent visits to other countries. In 1850, at Paris, Prince Hohenlohe met Guizot, who, "as you can see at once, has a striking personality. He is the only man I have seen so far in this Parisian society who does not appear to be thinking of something else all the time one talks to him."

Prince Hohenlohe also paid a visit to the English Court. After one of the dinners, he says,

I went to sit near Prince Albert. In his whole attitude of mind there is something distinctly doctrinaire, and I thought how unfortunate it was for the Prince that he should come straight from a German university to his present position, without having had the corners rubbed off by contact with the practical world. . . . After dinner . . . the Queen spoke in a very sympathetic, unaffected, and natural way to me (quite unlike the apathetic chatter of Continental sovereigns). At eight o'clock I again dined at Court, where I met the Prince of Wales, who had just returned from his Continental travels. He . . . is a very well-bred young man, rather in awe of his father. It is a pity he is not taller for his age.

Hohenlohe's relations to the English Court were far more cordial than were Bismarck's. The Queen had always known the Prince well, as his aunt was her sister. But now Prince Hohenlohe appealed to her even more than before. The Prince Consort was dead, and Prince Hohenlohe was his old friend. Moreover, since Prince Albert's death the Queen's connection with Germany had been somewhat severed, and, as chance would have it, at that very time German influence in England was watched with suspicion—the time of the Schleswig-Holstein affair. The account of it given by Hohenlohe to the Queen must be regarded as a peculiarly trustworthy narrative.

During the later sixties the Austro-German war was the all-absorbing event, and its consequences were specially felt in Bavaria, which had sided with Austria.

Hohenlohe was disgusted with the whole affair, and wrote: "When once Germans get to loggerheads, they can't stop."

But the Prince's personal triumph was at hand. With the close of the war Bavaria's political power was forever lessened. The particularist King and people now turned to the broad-gauge man who was a German first and a Bavarian second, and begged him to take the helm of the ship of State. He remarked dryly: "Seventeen years ago I spoke on the reorganization of Germany, expressly recognizing that I was at variance with the opinion of the Bavarian people. I bowed then to the opinion of the majority." The majority was now with him.

As Bavarian Premier Prince Hohenlohe lent his best efforts in the South, as did Bismarck in the North, toward union. Their proposal that the South German States associate themselves in establishing a league with the North German Confederation was finally successful.

But all events paled before those of 1870. With that fire of war the Prince had little to do directly, but much with its outcome—the unification of Germany under the King of Prussia as Emperor, and popular representation in an Imperial Reichstag. The King of Bavaria was induced to put himself at the head of German Princes in the offer of the Imperial Crown, and Prince Hohenlohe became First Vice-President of the youthful Reichstag. He was now brought into closer connection than ever with Bismarck, who had been further ennobled.

In the evening I went to Bismarck's house; I was placed upon the sofa in front of a table covered with teacups and bottles of beer, and also with herrings and oysters. His new Highness speedily arrived, and sat down by me. He began by consuming innumerable oysters, herrings, and ham, and drank beer with soda-water. He said that the Reichstag made the same impression upon him as a story told him by his parents of his youth. It appeared that he had had a garden, and used to pull up the radishes every day to see how thick the roots were, and thus the Reichstag was treating itself.

Again:

At eleven o'clock Bismarck arrived. We smoked and drank beer and Maitrank. By and by Bismarck reached the stage of anecdotes. He treats every one with a certain

arrogance. This gives him a great ascendancy over the timid exponents of the old European diplomacy. His successes stand him in good stead, so that he is the terror of all diplomatists.

Notwithstanding, Bismarck could appreciate Hohenlohe:

You are the only grand seigneur in Bavaria who is faithful to the Empire, and at the same time has the confidence of the King of Bavaria.

During this time many interesting people came to Berlin. For instance:

A great fuss has been made with Stanley, Dean of Westminster, who has arrived here from St. Petersburg. Last night he and his wife were at Bismarck's, till the smoke of our cigars drove him away from the supper-table. He is a polished gentleman, who has great influence at Court. He wears the clergyman's habit *habillé*, and a sort of black petticoat reaching to his knees. It looks exactly as if he had put on one of his ten-year-old daughter's black twill petticoats over his waistcoat by mistake.

Then came the Prince's long ambassadorship at Paris, the highest post in German diplomacy. During it we have comment on all sorts of men and manners, especially concerning Thiers, Gambetta, and Grévy:

Thiers came to me yesterday and asked me if I would come to him to-day to speak to Gambetta. I naturally accepted. Gambetta was already there when I entered M. Thiers's beautiful study. . . . I have never seen the present and the past so incarnated as in these men. . . . Gambetta makes a good impression. He is courteous and friendly, and, at the same time, you can see in him the confident, vigorous statesman.

Gambetta's opinion of the Jesuits is interesting in view of the events of the past two years in France; he thought "stronger measures required," as, for example, the closing of all establishments of non-authorized orders. As early as 1876, too, Thiers foreshadowed the Franco-Russian alliance. He asserted, said Hohenlohe, "that Russia will be isolated and assailed by England and Germany. His [Thiers's] aim is probably to win over the Russians to France, and to represent France as the deliverer who will help Russia." As to President Grévy's idiosyncrasies we read:

Visited Grévy to-day. He received me with his usual pleasant cordiality. He must have just finished breakfast, for he cleaned his back teeth with his first finger, which made him put half his hand into his mouth.

He then stuck his first finger into his nostrils, and rubbed various parts of his face with his fingers. . . . But he set forth the necessity of the republican form of government in France in weighty language, and was not a little impressive, thanks to his clear exposition.

In 1885 Hohenlohe resigned the Paris ambassadorship to become Governor of Alsace-Lorraine. In 1888 William I. and Frederick III. died. The lovable character of the first appears in Hohenlohe's observations:

It is one of the Emperor's greatest merits that, by his tactful amiability, he always succeeds in keeping these two [Bismarck and Moltke] in their proper places. The fact cannot be too strongly emphasized that the gracious personality of the Emperor has been of the utmost service in all the great successes which have been achieved in the past year [1870]. It requires self-abnegation to look on, without envy, at the ovations which Bismarck and Moltke receive. My respect for the old man has greatly increased on that account.

Again:

At four to Babelsberg, where I dined with the Emperor. . . . Old age seems to have come upon him quite suddenly. . . . After dinner the Emperor thanked me for all that I had done. . . . "I know," he said, "that whatever you have a hand in will go well." I parted reluctantly from the old man, whom I may never see again.

Of Frederick the Noble's last days we read:

I found the Emperor with the Empress. . . . One notices the suffering expression of his eyes. The Empress excused her presence through the necessity of supporting the Emperor in conversation. . . . When the Empress remarked that I looked [very well], I replied that this was due to hard work, which was an excellent thing for the health, and that I also thought that the Emperor would benefit by the amount of work he had, at which he nodded approvingly. . . . The Emperor then wrote some words of sympathy. . . . When I took my leave and expressed my sincere wishes for his recovery, the Emperor placed his hand on my shoulder and smiled sadly, so that I could hardly restrain my tears. He gave me the impression of a martyr; and indeed no martyrdom in the world is comparable with this slow death. Every one who comes near him is full of admiration for his courageous and quiet resignation to a fate which is inevitable and which he fully realizes. No doubt I saw him yesterday for the last time.

And now two remarkable events happened: a new Kaiser began to reign and the old Chancellor ere long resigned. Of William II. we read that, so late as

1888, he was "not popular in Germany and will have to be very careful to turn popular opinion in his favor." But the (then) Crown Prince was delivering himself of those keen judgments of men which have since become famous :

We referred to Russia, and he praised the Emperor as a good and honorable man, but said that he was rushing upon the fate of Louis XVI.

Later :

The Emperor William II. gives me the impression of a wise, conscientious man. When I speak with him, I am always reminded of Prince Albert (Queen Victoria's consort). He resembles him in voice, and has the same earnest manner.

Suddenly Bismarck resigned (1890). When Hohenlohe said to him that this was a very unexpected event to him, Bismarck observed :

"To me also," for three weeks ago he had had no idea that the affair would end in this way. "Anyhow," he added, "it was only to be expected, for the Emperor now wishes to reign alone." He then mentioned the individual points of difference between himself and the Emperor: the Workman's Compensation Law, which the Emperor wanted, though it was really nothing more than a Workman's Compulsion Law. This brought him to the question of the Presidency of the Ministry, and he said that it was an impossible state of affairs if any Minister were allowed to do business with the Emperor on his own responsibility without consulting the Cabinet Council or its President (Bismarck).

The venerated Grand Duke of Baden, who was a good friend to both sides, asserted, as quoted, that—

The main cause of the breach between the Emperor and Bismarck was . . . the question of the Cabinet Order of the year 1852, which Bismarck wished to impose upon the Ministers without the Emperor's knowledge, thus making it impossible for them to report directly to his Majesty. . . . Bismarck is said to have got so angry in the course of his discussion with the Emperor that the Emperor afterwards said "it was all he could do to refrain from throwing the ink-pot at my head." To these differences were added the Emperor's mistrust of the Prince's foreign policy. He suspected Bismarck of attempting to guide the policy of the country upon secret plans of his own, and of acting

with the object of abandoning Austria and the Triple Alliance and of securing an understanding with Russia.

A month later the Kaiser gave his now well-known version to Prince Hohenlohe : the question at issue was whether the Hohenzollern dynasty or the Bismarck dynasty was to reign.

As far back as 1870, Windthorst, that sharpest of politicians, declared that Bismarck would retire and Hohenlohe take his place. In 1877 Bismarck's daughter told Hohenlohe that he was the only man on whom her father could rely. "She also mentioned the fact that her father had often thought of me when he was tired of vexations and wanted to resign." But Caprivi succeeded Bismarck, and it was not until 1894 that Hohenlohe was called to the helm, which he held with great distinction until 1901. He was seventy-five years old when he became Chancellor. But, as William II. said of one year's work of that Chancellorship, "No Chancellor has ever been distinguished by the passing of two measures [the Civil Code and the Naval Estimates] so important to the domestic and foreign development of the country." Friendship between the old and young man had waxed strong; it was already strong in 1890, when "the Emperor pressed my hand so that my fingers cracked."

Nearly eighty-two years old, Prince Hohenlohe laid down the burden of the Chancellorship. A few months later his sister wrote :

God gave us the most beautiful summer weather during those days, and we were surrounded by an abundance of roses. . . . We walked about the rooms where our childhood had been spent together. . . . From the castle a pleasant path leads through trees . . . and thence can be seen the wooded hills of the Solling. It was so solemn when my brother slowly walked along this path and said: "It is sixty years now since our father died." In the vault he laid two wreaths of white carnations . . . and was glad when I quoted the text, "It is sown in corruption, it is raised in incorruption." . . . Exactly three weeks afterwards my brother was laid with his parents in Schillingsfürst.

Comment on Current Books

Biological Philosophy

The author has undertaken the difficult task of solving the fundamental questions of philosophy with the aid of biology alone. For its light he regards a valid epistemology, a valid ontology, as yet waiting. It is unusual today to revert, as he does, from the conception of energy to the conception of substance as the prime problem of philosophy. It is true, indeed, that "some kind of substantial and permanent Being as the source of the perpetual flux of things" must be postulated; though our knowledge of it can be only of its qualities and energies, not of its inscrutable substance. But this permanent Being Mr. Montgomery discovers in our familiar acquaintance, "living substance . . . the only genuine substantial existent in nature. For it alone maintains its identity, though continually undergoing changes." Of course this identity cannot be attributed to the changing molecules which from time to time constitute the living substance. "Some steadfastly organizing power is here evidently at work." True enough; but what is it? We are told that this apparently causative power is not really a cause, but an effect—"the direct result of the interaction of the organic substance with its environment." Life, says our biologist, is merely "the result from moment to moment of . . . a definite cycle of chemical activity." But why chemical activity in the interaction of organic substance with environment is essentially different in a living and a dead body does not appear. There is a "creative stress" in living organisms, a recognizable purposiveness, a "genuine teleology," a working toward an end, but somehow it sets itself a-going; it is pronounced "arbitrary and fantastic" to refer it to a transcendent "Reason," or "Intelligence," or "Spirit." Is not this something like the obsolete theological notion of "creation out of nothing"? Futile as is all such philosophizing, there are valuable practical applications of biology in ethics, education, and sociology, and these Mr. Montgomery has instructively presented, though disadvantaged by a heavy and otherwise somewhat defective literary style. (*Philosophical Problems in the Light of Vital Organization*. By Edmund Montgomery. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$2.50.)

Eternal Life

This little book is based on several positions fundamental in modern religious thought, in that "natural" and "spiritual" are not mutually ex-

clusive terms, but the natural is a manifestation of the spiritual; that there is a close analogy between natural law and spiritual law; that death in order to life—a dropping of the lower to possess the higher—is essential to normal development, "die to live" is the law of spiritual advance. The line of thought here followed upon these principles is deeply religious in spirit, but uncritical in form. "All forms of life, natural, social, business," can hardly be granted to be "manifestations of eternal life;" nor can it be admitted that truth and love are contrasted as "the positive or active" and "negative or sympathetic" elements of eternal life. This flavor of idiosyncrasy is widely apparent. A Tolstoyan attitude of non-resistance to social evils is deemed essential to a spiritual church. The writer's thought is saturated with the Bible to a most commendable degree, but uses it too largely in the allegorizing mode peculiar to the Gospel of Matthew and the Epistle to the Hebrews. (*Eternal Life*. By William Parker. Murdoch, Kerr & Co., Pittsburg, Pa.)

The Essentials of Aesthetics

An admirable handbook is this for teachers, and for the general reader also, in its compendious presentation of a subject that branches into many lines of specialization. It is treated analytically, in exhibiting the sources of the highest arts, and the methods of their development in their entire field. Synthetically, the relations of difference and identity which obtain between art and science on one side, and art and religion on the other side, are defined with a distinctness at present highly desirable, and the true use of the arts for culture and humanity is discriminatingly evinced. The products of many artists at present greatly praised—men who stigmatize moral objections to their work with pen or brush as due to lack of æsthetic culture—Professor Raymond pronounces untrue "to the first principles of æsthetics still more than of ethics." The reader is conducted through a richly diversified field of the sights and sounds of nature, and of the products of the human voice and hand, including even the gestures of the orator. The conclusion reached is that "the mere fact that effects are 'true to nature' by no means justifies their use in art of high quality." Art, as Professor Raymond justly contends, can justify itself only so far as it promotes wholesome thought and conduct. It is impracticable here to com-

ment on special features of this many-sided work, enriched with many apposite illustrations of its treatment of details in architecture, music, painting, poetry, and sculpture. But it can be said that its superior in an effective, all-round discussion of its subject is not in sight. By his series of seven volumes of comparative æsthetics Professor Raymond has obtained an international reputation. (*The Essentials of Æsthetics in Music, Poetry, Sculpture, and Architecture.* By George Lansing Raymond, L.H.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$2.50, net.)

Jewish Messianism For Christian as well as Jewish readers this is an instructive book. "The hope of Israel," for which Paul declared he was a prisoner at Rome, still, as ever, distinguishes the Hebrew race from every other, and through many centuries it has been both the cause and the consolation of sufferings. An outline of the development and history of this unique hope through Biblical and subsequent times to the present, the conditions which influenced it, and its influence upon the Jewish people, is succinctly given in the present volume. No prophetic word of Jesus appears to have been more amply fulfilled than that many false Messiahs should spring up. The expectations of a second coming of Christ that have deluded portions of the Church afford a parallel—a faint one. Most Jews still cherish expectation of a personal Messiah, and Zionism is regarded as an advance toward the greater ideal of the Messianic era. (*The Messiah Idea in Jewish History.* By Julius H. Greenstone, Ph.D. The Jewish Publication Society of America, Philadelphia.)

A Man Without a Country The contrast between the papers making up the volume of "English Hours" and those in "The American Scene," by Henry James, gives one food for reflection. The former, while having a characteristic detachment, are often so vivid, so refreshing, that the reader is left in a delicious glow. The latter, in even greater detachment, and with their overwhelming and bewildering convolutions of phrase, make one thankful that the writer of "The Upton Letters" has described this author's style so perfectly that nothing can be added. He says that when he reads Henry James he never is sure "who has got the ball." Sometimes, in the vagueness, a doubt arises whether there *is* any ball. No one can read this volume all through without at intervals coming up to breathe. One misses, to a depressing extent, the charming felicities we expect from Mr. James. Yet one reads with interest, never losing the hope that he will say something. That hope, of

course, is occasionally fulfilled. Mr. James "likes" Grant's tomb. He almost "likes" several other objects in America—the Harvard Union, the White House, the Capitol, and Florida. He favors us with such delicious combinations as "momentary gregarious emphasis," which, we gather from the context, refers to the applause at a football game on Soldiers' Field. He ruminates in semi-sadness over the departing glories of Washington Square, and deplores the lack of memorial tablets upon New York houses, recalling the fact, however, that it is useless to label a house that invariably makes way for a sky-scraping "apartment." He writes with exquisite grace and delicate color of the Hudson and New England and the South. Then, turning to more prosaic observations, he is justly impressed by the well-shod Americans, and their striking advantages in dentistry. The other side of that observation, the ugly side, always impresses Americans in England. We see there the "strange irregularities, protrusions, deficiencies, fangs and tusks and cavities" enumerated by Mr. James. He wonders that our men who pay so much attention to their footgear are so careless about their hats. Perhaps we cannot attend to both, and in that are like our English neighbors. Of Charleston and Richmond Mr. James writes in quivering mood. He wonders whether "the *only* focus of life in the South had been slavery," and with that has disappeared everything. He regards the only Southern book of distinction published in many a year to be Professor Du Bois's "The Souls of Black Folk," and he wonders at the fact. It is far from Mr. James's practice to focus anything himself, and so we are left in mid-air at the end of the book, wondering, as he wondered, and as far from a definite idea of his actual impressions of "The American Scene" as was he, the detached observer, himself. (*The American Scene.* By Henry James. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$3, net.)

Pluralistic Theism In this acutely and cautiously reasoned work a constructive philosophy undertakes to vindicate the judgment of common sense upon the validity of religion and religious knowledge. By religion is understood "simply the recognition that life has spiritual values, and the demand that the world shall be so conceived as to give a basis and guarantee for those values." It is pointed out that science, simply as science, is concerned only with facts, not with their values; with obvious methods, not with their hidden meanings; with the *what* and *how*, not with the *why*, of things. What science thus leaves out religion and

philosophy take up—the former in an emotional, the latter in an intellectual, attitude, but with a final interest fundamentally the same, to justify the demands both of human feeling and of human reason. The treatment given to skeptical objections to theistic beliefs is elaborate and candidly appreciative. It is addressed to earnest thinkers, it presumes patient consideration, and may weary those who are disinclined to intellectual exercise. As a persuasive to see things whole it is in general a good antidote to the skepticism that grows out of partial and fragmentary views. Yet it is doubtful whether the type of theistic belief to which the argument conducts is the least difficult to adopt. Pluralism, the type here adopted, regards the ultimate reality as “a confederacy of free beings,” whose center is God, but whose consciousness lies in part outside of God’s consciousness. This, indeed, avoids some difficulty found in an all-including ethical monism, but only, as it seems, at the cost of greater difficulty. No part or element of life can be really external to the life of God. The contrary view is maintained in twenty pages (153–173), to which it is enough here to refer. Pluralism has been elaborately argued for in Professor Howison’s “Limits of Evolution.” The representative exposition of monism is Professor Royce’s “The World and the Individual.” (The Religious Conception of the World. By Arthur Kenyon Rogers, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50, net.)

Pro Fide Many will find this volume a serviceable help in solving doubts concerning religion. The author, a lecturer on theology in an Anglican Church college, tells us he has tested the strength of many of his positions in debates with secularists. He assumes a frankly critical attitude toward the Scriptures, and draws largely on teachings of modern science. Whether as a textbook of apologetics it is adequate to slay the doubt of any skeptical inquirer on whom it may be tried will depend on the completeness of the skeptic’s armor. It undertakes to prove the existence of God by the concept of a “first cause,” which, as Professor Royce says, “has been responsible for some of the most fatal of the misfortunes of religion and humanity.” The design-argument for the existence of God is of the now antiquated type, based on particulars of apparent contrivance rather than on the general evidence of a gradually developing purpose. The same may be said of the argument for immortality; it is old, *minus* the necessary modern improvement. The transcendence of God is affirmed, but not his active immanence;

and we are told that God “permits” sin to exist—a perilous concession, and, in view of the scourges with which he is working to abolish sin, not true. The use made of Scripture cannot be commended as always judicious with skeptics, *e.g.*, to prove that “Jesus claimed the divine attributes of omnipotence and omnipresence.” Such are the serious defects of a work in which gold is mixed with stubble. On the other hand, the author’s sympathies are with the philosophy of “personal idealism,” and he rightly conceives of personality as the ultimate reality. (Pro Fide. By Charles Harris, B.D. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

*Tolstoy’s
Gospel Harmony*

Although the eccentric philanthropist whose Gospel studies are here presented is a light shining in a dark place—the baptized paganism of the Holy Orthodox Church of Russia—it is but comparatively that he is a light. The interest attaching to his person imparts to this volume whatever interest it possesses for us. Vehement recoil from the unreason of a Christianity distorted and caricatured carries him far past the center of reasonable judgment. Of the evolution of religion to be seen in the Old Testament he is ignorant, and thinks its Hebrew type as foreign to Christianity as the Hindu. His ethical and religious impulse is pure, though not always enlightened. His great interest is how to live in the right way, and this he has found in the teachings of Jesus, whom he regards as simply “a great man,” his mother’s illegitimate child. The Four Gospels contain it all, and much else which he rejects—especially all miracles. He has read them in the Greek, and reproduces here in parallel columns the original, the English Authorized Version, and his own, in which last some strange readings appear—the strangest of them in John i. 1: “The comprehension of life became the beginning of all” is presented as alternative to “In the beginning was the Word.” The text is regularly followed by commentary, and each chapter concludes with a free paraphrase of the teaching contained. The unique principle of this Gospel Harmony is its adherence to the sense of the teaching regardless of the historical order, though this is not altogether thrown aside. Its chief merit is the moral earnestness which predominates amidst intellectual limitations. Two volumes of an expensive edition of the author’s works are here bound in one at a reduced price. (The Four Gospels Harmonized and Translated. By Count Leo N. Tolstoy. Translated by Leo Wiener. Marshall Jones Company, Boston. \$3.50.)

Letters to The Outlook

THE ADIRONDACKS

Your editorial on the Adirondacks revives in my mind reflections which at one time occupied me with more personal bearing than they do now or ever will again. Time, I suppose, will right all things. After five years of silence and resignation to my fate in being displaced from the position to which I was called for the purpose of demonstrating that "these resources (the Adirondack forest) could be exploited without jeopardizing other and more valuable features," I may be presumed to speak, not from personal chagrin, but from a desire to assist in propagating the truth.

If there was ever a pitiable exhibition of incompetency of a popular government in dealing with an economic problem, the Adirondack problem furnishes the most instructive. For more than thirty years the State has tried to formulate and to live up to a policy, and all it has accomplished is still for the most part merely negative.

Contrary to your belief, it is not the people's interests that are being cared for in the Adirondacks (if the people are the many); but these interests are being sacrificed to class interests, which have succeeded in duping the public into the belief that they stand for public interest.

Little did that far-seeing statesman, Horatio Seymour, anticipate how his purposes would be perverted when in 1872 he urged the establishment of a State forest reserve. Economic considerations were at the basis of his proposition. And when in 1885 the first step was taken to carry out his suggestion, the economic side was not lost sight of; neither the Commission which made the first proposition for legislative action, nor Governor Hill in his message, held out health and recreation, or even protection to water supplies, as the *exclusive* object of the proposed reserve; on the contrary, the interests of the lumber industry were expressed in so many words as also worthy of attention.

It was the privilege of the writer to formulate for Senator Lowe the legislation which finally created the Forest Commission and the State Forest Reserve. How sadly have his conceptions of what these were to be miscarried! He had in mind the rational and *thoroughly democratic* policies which have made his native land famous among the nations as the leader in forestry matters.

He knew from his own experience that "these resources could be exploited without

jeopardizing other and more valuable features;" that all the benefits derivable from a forest country—health, pleasure, sport, protection to water supply, as well as timber—can be secured simultaneously and continuously, since all these interests *are* being subserved simultaneously by the forest management practiced abroad. He knew that forest preservation is not the childish let-alone policy which sentimentalists preach, but involves use and reproduction, as does the preservation of all living things. He had expected the establishment of a technical administration which would introduce forestry methods in the utilization and reproduction of the timber supply, while paying due regard to the use of the woods as a resort by the people at large, not merely by the privileged classes.

What has been the history?

A political commission was appointed, which dilly-dallied with their charge, and within a few years fell under suspicion—rightly or wrongly—of misusing their trust in favor of the lumbermen, who now still own probably as much as the State.

Not trusting their servants, not able to control them by ordinary means, a few sentimentalists, and perhaps some other private interests, had influence enough to secure the remarkable clause in the Constitution which prevents the State from using its property rationally, and requires to have it left forever in a wild condition. This, by the way, would also exclude the *planting of waste areas*, which the Forest Commission, stimulated by the State College at Cornell, has lately done—in *evident violation of the Constitution*.

How puerile does such a provision appear, especially as a part of the organic law, in the Constitution of a respectable State!

If this let-alone policy were all that had resulted, we could contemplate it with calmness; time might show its folly, and the State could, after further education of the public, readily adopt a more rational plan. But the result has been worse. A large part of the Adirondack lands has been allowed to pass into private hands, not of small owners, but of rich men and sporting clubs, which naturally exclude the public, and now absolutely control the policy of the State as regards its lands and the legislation concerning them.

How many citizens of the State can afford to use the Adirondacks as a summer resort? Certainly not the larger number. How many would be excluded from the healthful air of the mountains by the rational use for

economic purposes of certain parts? Certainly not so many as the private landholders now exclude.

Besides the insignificant holdings in small farms and grounds, there are three classes of owners represented within the limits of the so-called Adirondack Park, each owning about one-third of the three million acres; namely, the State, the owners of individual or corporate private preserves, and the lumbermen. It is the second class, although numerically and also probably in acreage somewhat in the minority, that is in control: the tail wags the other two-thirds of the dog!

The idea that the North Woods are a resort for all the people of the State, a beautiful argument of these few privileged rich men and corporations, is in reality a delusion invented to keep the State from making its property useful to all citizens in a democratic way.

It is perhaps not generally understood that the so-called Cornell experiment, or demonstration of forest management, with its incidental harvesting, planting, and reproducing of the timber crop, was choked off, before it had been fairly begun, by two bankers, who saw in this educational institution a curtailment of their hunting grounds, and who had secured Governor Odell to do their bidding, although, of course, the argument for his action was very different.

These privileged owners of lodges and game preserves, leagued together in the Association for the Protection of the Adirondacks (of which I was a member until I found out its attitude), have boldly put it in print that the State is under moral obligation to them to keep the State lands forever in the wild state, because they acquired their preserves with that understanding!

It is the sporting interest, as everybody ought to know, that controls in the Adirondacks. Just as in England the sporting aristocrats have reserved for their pleasure the waste moors and heaths which could produce the wood supply for the people, now imported at high cost, so do we here build up a luxury of the same type, a "forest" in the old sense of the word as used by William the Conqueror, in which the interest of the larger number is lost sight of.

I do not argue for or against the particular proposition of permitting storage reservoirs to be established in the Adirondacks—although I could readily bring forward arguments to show that the small loss to the sporting element which might result from such reservoirs is vastly inferior to the State's interest in developing its water powers, and that, under proper restrictions,

this could be done without impairing the sanitary conditions. My object is to show that you are mistaken in believing that you are advocating the people's interest when you join forces with the sporting clubs; and furthermore to assert that, if properly administered, we should soon be able to "rejoice" in having these resources exploited without any public interests being jeopardized.

Ithaca, N. Y.

B. E. FERNOW.

[See editorial comment on this and the following letter on another page.—THE EDITORS.]

I have been surprised that so little has been said of the greatest danger to which the Adirondack forests are exposed—fire. All the cutting of the pulp companies, which is probably the most wasteful of all, is small compared to it. Cutting leaves at least roots, underbrush, and humus, gives an opportunity for the food-supply for the future growth of wood; but a fierce forest fire (and a large part of the North Woods was swept with fires three or four years ago) burns down to the sand and rocks. In the sand poplars soon spring up, and in the course of a century may give sufficient mold for finer trees, but on thousands of acres where the rocks are burned bare, even they will not start, and the country is irremediably ruined.

Fire-breaks are the only thing I at least can conceive of, and the most efficient form that can be devised is by overflowing swamp lands. The whole Adirondack country should be connected with lakes wherever it is possible. If the objection is made that ugly shores of mud and slime will be made, this can be satisfied in most cases by having the dams, at the mouths of swamps and low places proposed to be overflowed, made sufficiently high to insure as great depth of water over the larger portion of the land overflowed as possible.

The greater number of swamps will be found on careful examination to lend themselves to this treatment; as a rule they have well-defined longer axes, with steeply sloping shores that would lend themselves to such treatment as would cause little unsightliness. The greater difficulty would be at the extremity of the longer axis in each swamp opposite the dam at its outlet; in some places unsightliness could hardly be avoided without expensive filling, though even in many such cases the trouble could be modified if not avoided.

The way the Adirondack country should be treated should be first for scenic effects, then, and incidentally, water storage; three feet could be drawn off from each lake or pond without damage.

From one dam to another there should be either strips of cultivated land or forest left between, these not to be more than a hundred feet or even less in width, which could be cleared of underbrush, and if necessary burned to check forest fire, or in places ditches could be led along from the face of the dam and water allowed to flow and saturate the soil between them.

A swamp, except in autumn, is not a particularly beautiful object, and after a severe drought it is a menace to all the surrounding woodland. Fire will get in, smolder, eat down to the roots, then a high wind comes, and particles of burning leaf-mold and twigs are carried long distances. While a swamp is on fire nothing can be done except to watch and back-fire when necessary, and this last is always a dangerous, if not desperate, expedient.

The only way to save the Adirondack forests is to save them from fire first—everything else is secondary; and to save them from fire is to localize forest fires when they do occur, as occur they will; to do that I can think of no better way than to flood all the swamps possible and connect the ponds and lakes with fire-breaks wherever it is possible to do so.

(Rev.) SAMUEL F. ADAM.

Franklin, New York.

NATIONAL MUSIC

Mr. Henry T. Finck's musicological writings have so far had no more ardent admirer than I am, and I gladly subscribe to every word he said in praise of our unfortunate MacDowell's work. [The Outlook for December 22, 1906.] But when he spoke of the probabilities of a National music in this country, and rejected the folk-song as a root and the negro as its soil, he must—as great men are wont to do at times—have "nodded." The longed-for American composer, to Mr. Finck's mind, must have "individuality." He might as well have said that the American composer must breathe and be a biped.

Poetic individualities are born of the *people*, of the *masses*; not of the classes. Goethe and Mendelssohn were no exceptions, though they seemed to be. For their time coincides with the period of Germany's lowest political depression, and such periods, through the commonness of misery, bring all social strata into close touch with one another. Neither does a musical individuality drop ready made from the sky. It must form itself here upon earth, and if it is to be of an ethnical type, it must grow up amid the musical colloquialisms of its nation. No root, no plant—the proposition does not

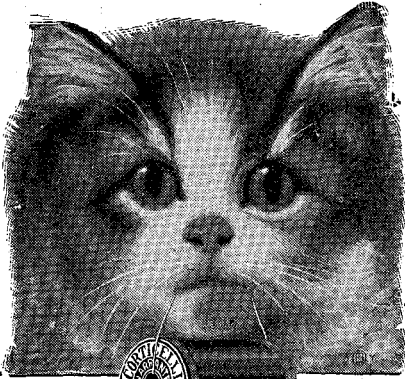
seem occult. How Mr. Finck could refer to Grieg, Chopin, *et al.* (though wisely omitting Beethoven), for *his* side of the argument passes the powers of my logic.

That the negro melody is African Mr. Finck will not be able to prove. What can be conjectured about it is that it is Portuguese, dating from the time when Gonsalvo captured fifty Moors of high caste, who were exchanged by Henry the Navigator for five thousand negro slaves—a hundred negroes for each Moor. *These negroes had no song*, for it happens that the tribe from which they came, having no articulate scale, employed only crude instruments of percussion. It was in the third or fourth generation of the original five thousand, plus the numerical growth of nearly a century and minus the last vestige of race-memory and original language, when they were shipped to the rising colony of Brazil, which is Portuguese to this day in every respect except politically. When the New England colonies were founded, their slave trade was a coast trade; not with Africa, but with Brazil. Piracy has hardly contributed more than five per cent. to this trade.

Thus the negro had learned the white man's song, and he kept it. He imparted the plaintive note of suffering to it, and gradually, as he learned to talk in English, he adapted the rhythms of his songs to the cadence of English speech. As to suffering, as an art-generating force and source it is no longer open to dispute; and it is equally indisputable that the negro melody has acquired a National significance in America. Stephen Foster wrote only one song that has become really a folk-song, and that is the one in which he speaks the American negro's musical idiom, "Way down upon the Suwanee River."

As to the Indian, he may be interesting to the historian, anthropologist, and ethnographer; but since the racial superiority over the negro, absurdly enough claimed for him, has only served to keep him aloof from our civilization, he is to us a mere curiosity.

That Dvorák has "abandoned" his belief in the negro melody as a fount of our National music, courtesy compels me to accept as true after Mr. Finck's assertion. A belief, however, that can generate such a master work as the Symphony "From the New World" must have amounted to a conviction, and of its abandonment we had a right to expect some slight expression, which Dvorák's facile pen could have easily given it—but it didn't. Could Mr. Finck have misconstrued the courteous acquiescence of that fine, but word-poor, soul as a change of faith? CONSTANTIN VON STERNBERG.



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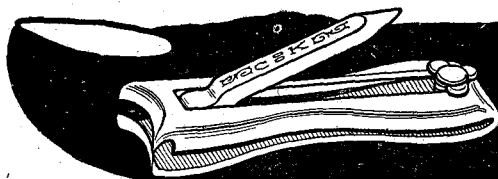
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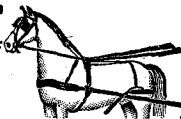
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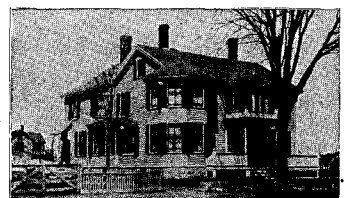
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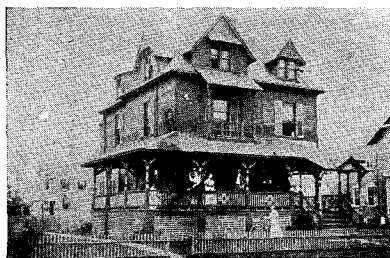
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HELP WANTED

Business Situations

COLLEGE MAN wanted by established mercantile house. Good chance promotion. \$15 a week to start. Write Business Opportunity Co., 1 Union Sq., N. Y.

WANTED—Sexton for church and Sunday-school in suburbs of Brooklyn, N. Y. Married man with wife able to assist preferred. Duties would not take entire time. Address, giving references, "R." P. O. Box 1,977, New York.

AGENTS wanted to represent old established Mail Order House. Over one thousand rapid selling specialties. From \$5 to \$10 per day easily made, costly outfit free. George A. Parker, Dept. 18, 720 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.

LEARN SCIENTIFIC BUSINESS LETTER-WRITING by mail from man who built up half-a-million dollar business. Big demand for good correspondents. Prospectus free. Page-Davis School of Business Letter-Writing, Dept. 132, Chicago, Ill.

INCREASE your earning power by learning to write advertisements. Facts sent free. Page-Davis Co., Dept. 32, 90 Wabash Ave., Chicago.

WANTED—In every community, energetic men and women to solicit orders from townspeople and farmers for our complete line of nursery stock and seeds. Goods widely advertised; attractive proposition. Wages paid weekly. No experience or money needed. No delivering or collecting. Congenial, steady work. PERTY Nursery Company, Rochester, New York.

A situation is open to man of education and tact to assume charge of an endowed institution furnishing free instruction along manual training, industrial, and commercial lines. Business, executive and organizing ability essential. Location in vicinity of New York City. Applicant should state age and previous occupations and give references. Address 6,049, Outlook.

AGENTS—Gas lamp with detachable heater and cooker; lamp makes its own gas; equals electricity; heater heats any room; cooker cooks everything; all three cost one cent daily. Booklet free giving wholesale prices. Agents making big money. Monarch Co., 123 Liberty St., New York.

OPEN POSITIONS Auditor, \$3,000. Magazine man, \$2,500. Bookkeeper, \$1,200. Clerk, \$900. Other openings on file. If you desire to change write for list and plan. Business Opportunity Co., 1 Union Sq., N. Y.

HELP WANTED

Business Situations

CIVIL service employees are paid well for easy work; examinations of all kinds soon; booklet A 17, describing positions and telling easiest and quickest way to secure them, is free. Write for it now. Washington Civil Service School, Washington, D. C.

PROMINENT New York banking firm desires the services of first-class salesmen in every community to handle high grade stocks and bonds on commission. Excellent opportunities for the right men. A. L. Wisner & Co., 80 Wall St., New York.

"TESTIMONY" tells what high-grade men and well-known employers think of Hapgoods' service. If a business, professional, or technical man, write for it to-day. Hapgoods, 305-307 Broadway, N. Y.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

WANTED—A mother's helper, experienced, intelligent. Salary \$25. References exchanged. Address Mrs. Robert P. Brodhead, Kingston, Pa.

WANTED for next autumn, an upstairs housekeeper for a boarding-school for girls near Philadelphia. Applications must be accompanied with references and full particulars as to experience. Address Box 139, Bryn Mawr, Pa.

SUBURBAN minister wants good cook and laundress, with daughter, thirteen or more, attend school, help after hours. Reference. 6,084, Outlook.

WANTED—A reliable housekeeper for a medium sized hospital; trained nurse preferred. References required. Apply to Mrs. E. L. Tiemann, Upper Montclair, N. J.

Teachers and Governesses

WANTED—Tutor for a young man to fit him for college. 6,151, Outlook.

TEACHERS—Desirable positions are opening. Write, call The Hopkins' Educational Agency, 1 Union Square. Governesses, housekeepers, companions, etc.

WANTED—Young Protestant woman, preferably speaking German or French, as nursery governess for four small children. Teaching in primary branches, some nature study and elementary music desired. Write, stating age, experience, references, and salary required, to 44 W. Fifth St., Oswego, N. Y.

FAMILIES, institutions, schools, and hotels in need of housekeepers, matrons, mother's helpers, companions, etc., address Miss Richards, 121 Angell St., Providence, R. I.

TEACHERS—We put our successful record of 26 years back of you. Let us place you, write to-day. The New Century Teachers' Bureau, 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.

\$23.40 represents the annual salaries of positions now open on our books. Free registration. "No position—no pay." Registration form O sent on application. The Kinsley-Drake Company, 245 Broadway, New York.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Business Situations

WOMAN who has had successful experience in charge of institutions would like superintendency of home for children or old people. 6,106, Outlook.

STENOGRAPHER—Educated lady, twelve years' business experience, desires position private secretary. 6,123, Outlook.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

YOUNG English lady, thoroughly well educated and refined, desires position as companion to lady going abroad. Speaks French. Has never held similar position before. Excellent references. Miss Elswood, Howland Ave., Englewood, N. J.

A woman of refinement desires position of housekeeper in school, institution, or family of wealth. Experienced. 6,152, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED graduate of domestic science desires position as managing housekeeper in school or institution. 6,120, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED matron (Englishwoman) desires position in boys' private school now or in September. Highest references. L., 6,118, Outlook.

MASSEUSE desires position in family as nurse and companion. Excellent reference. 6,124, Outlook.

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSIFIED ADVERTISING

SITUATIONS WANTED

Companions and Domestic Helpers

REFINED North German lady, going abroad for summer, would chaperon young lady in return for traveling expenses. Highest references. 6,128, Outlook.

TRAINED nurse, practical, willing, desires position with invalid or elderly lady. Moderate. References. 6,127, Outlook.

REFINED young woman returning to Germany in May, who speaks English, French, and German, and is an excellent sailor, offers her services as attendant to lady or child in return for passage paid. References. Address 44 West Fifth St., Oswego, N. Y.

EXECUTIVE, cultivated, adaptable woman between 35 and 40 years of age, experienced in educational, social, and domestic life, with superior endorsements, desires a responsible position, preferably in a private home. 5,923, Outlook.

WANTED—Position as managing housekeeper in private family or institution by lady under middle age, educated, cultured, refined, perfectly healthy. References exchanged. 5,986, Outlook.

COLLEGE man desires position of companion or tutor to boys going abroad, during summer months. References. Address "Yale," 6,013, Outlook.

WANTED—Position in an institution by a woman of mature years and practical experience who will complete a course of study in institutional management in June. Address 6,041, Outlook.

CAPABLE woman desires position as housekeeper for bachelor or in widower's family. Address 6,073, Outlook.

SOUTHERN WOMAN of refinement and education desires position as traveling companion-secretary or governess. References. C, 2127 12th Ave., North, Birmingham, Ala.

REFINED young lady wishes position as mother's helper or care for invalid. 6,107, Outlook.

AFTER June the fourth a teacher, speaking French, desires position as traveling companion, either in this country or abroad; is willing to be left on the Continent. 6,104, Outlook.

YOUNG LADY, traveled abroad before, would act as companion and guide to one or two ladies—summer trip. 6,112, Outlook.

RESPONSIBLE woman, middle-aged, used to catering for and managing large household, seeks position as managing housekeeper, companion, or caretaker. Experienced traveler. Address Madame S—, care Dr. Kinney, Easton, Pa.

REFINED young lady wishes position as companion or secretary. Adaptable, well educated, musical. Companionship to refined lady or secretaryship to physician preferred. References exchanged. 14 May St., Worcester, Mass.

TRAVELING companion. Familiar European languages, hotels, railroads. Miss Wagner, 155 West 112th St., New York.

Teachers and Governesses

WANTED—Tutorship. One taking abroad preferable. Cultured, Christian young man. Princeton post-graduate. 6,119, Outlook.

TUTORING by master in boys' school. Recent college graduate; wide experience. Would travel. 6,126, Outlook.

TEACHER would accompany family to the mountains during summer vacation as companion or tutor for her expenses. 6,139, Outlook.

WISCONSIN girl wishes position as governess or companion. 6,130, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED university graduate desires summer tutorship. 6,133, Outlook.

VASSAR graduate, experienced teacher, desires position for summer to travel as tutor. 6,131, Outlook.

YOUNG woman, college graduate, experienced teacher, desires position of some kind for the summer. 6,132, Outlook.

NORTH German lady, speaking English and French, wishes to accompany family going abroad as chaperon or governess. 6,144, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Teachers and Governesses

COLLEGE graduate, age 27, former assistant in English, U. of P., speaks French and German; experienced tutor; some European experience. References. Wishes place with parties going abroad. H. W. Garner, 3938 Pine St., Phila.

DEAF woman or deaf child can secure experienced teacher for summer months. Lip-reading. Articulation. 6,148, Outlook.

REFINED young woman, experienced nine years with children, desires position as governess or companion. 6,145, Outlook.

KINDERGARTNER and primary teacher, six years' experience in New York, desires position for fall. Exceptional references. 6,146, Outlook.

TEACHER in school for deficient children wants during summer care of child—epileptic, backward, or with speech defect. Experienced with normal children. References exchanged. 6,001, Outlook.

REFINED young woman with fifteen years' experience as teacher desires traveling position as governess or companion. European tour preferred. References exchanged. 6,022, Outlook.

WANTED—May 1st, entire direction of one child, 2 to 4 preferred. Ten years' experience. M. P. B., 5,901, Outlook.

BRYN MAWR College graduate, acquainted with French, wishes to accompany family as governess to Europe or elsewhere this summer, or to be traveling companion to older woman. References given. 6,085, Outlook.

UNIVERSITY GRADUATE. Young woman, much experienced in teaching and travel. Summer tutoring or travel. 6,099, Outlook.

TUTOR or secretary. Summer position desired. Home, school, camp, or travel. Vassar graduate. Experienced. 6,094, Outlook.

YOUNG WOMAN, experienced teacher, with college and university training, wishes position as traveling or resident tutor for July and August. Latin, Greek, German, English. 6,097, Outlook.

WANTED—Summer position as governess or mother's helper. 6,095, Outlook.

BRYN MAWR College junior will tutor during summer. Address 6,096, Outlook.

WANTED, May 15th, position as nursery governess or companion by college woman. Age 24. Can read aloud. Will travel. 6,113, Outlook.

MUSICAL

GENUINE bargains in high-grade upright pianos. Slightly used instruments: 12 Steinways from \$350 up; 6 Webers from \$250 up; 9 Krakauers from \$250 up; 7 Knabes from \$250 up; 3 Chickering from \$250 up; also ordinary second-hand Uprights, \$75 up; also 10 very fine Parlor Grand pianos at about half. Write for full particulars. Cash or easy monthly payments. Lyon & Healy, 40 Adams St., Chicago. We ship everywhere on approval.

VICTOR Baillard, late of Metropolitan Opera, N. Y. Voice culture, correct breathing, opera. Repertoire. Studios, 101 West 78th Street, N. Y. Summer school, Newfoundland, N. J.; situated in heart of Ramapo Mountains.

POULTRY AND PET STOCK

RHODE Island Reds, Light Brahmas, Buff, White, Silver, and Golden Wyandottes, Buff, Barred, Black, and White Rocks, Black Minorcas and Javas, Brown, White, and Buff Leghorns; hardy, prolific, and of farm-bred, pure stock. For birds, moderate prices, or "eggs to hatch," at 10c. each, write Walter Sherman, Oceanside, Newport, R. I.

SHEPHERD PONES for sale. Beautiful illustrations. Belle Meade, Bedford, Mass.

WHITE Wyandottes bred for eggs. Information 2c. stamp, White-All Poultry Plant, Station 1, Henleyville, California.

SOUVENIR POST CARDS

1,000 POST CARDS MADE TO ORDER from any photo or print, with your imprint on each as publisher, for \$6.00; 500, \$4.00. Workmanship guaranteed. Goods delivered within 10 days. Rich Photo Process Co., Dept. 19, 28 East 23d St., New York.

MISCELLANEOUS

TRANSLATIONS made from French and German into English by experienced translator. 6,122, Outlook.

LADY going abroad for six months will rent elegant apartment, furnished, on Central Park West. 10 rooms, 3 baths. Best references required. 6,129, Outlook.

A gentlewoman wishes in New York City, day work, not mental, in hotel. Reading to invalids. Chaperoning. Private teaching English branches, vocal, instrumental music. Best references. 6,143, Outlook.

SHOPPING—Samples sent. Orders filled promptly. Suits and hats to order. Highest references. M. W. Wightman & Co., 44 West 22d St., New York.

KLIPS bind pamphlets, papers, magazines. Price-list free. Fourteen samples (7 sizes). Postpaid on approval, 75c. Covers to order. Harlan Ballard, Pittsfield, Mass.

DEAF or hard of hearing persons find lip reading simple, easy, practical; oral or mail; terms easy. O. L. Lipmann, P. O. Drawer 2,618, Boston.

SCHOOL for TRAINED ATTENDANTS, 45 Centre Street, Orange, New Jersey. Superintendent, J. H. Strong. Five months' course. Fee \$100, including tuition, board, lodging, uniforms, and books. For further information apply to school.

MOTHER'S care given young girls in their own home or traveling. 6,074, Outlook.

CONSUMPTION need not be considered hopeless. "Throw physic to the dogs." Health restored and disease prevented. Send for treatise on consumption, chronic catarrh, and other wasting diseases. It teaches you to cure yourself with pure olive oil, fresh air, and sunshine. Los Angeles Olive Growers Ass'n, 305 Bradbury Bldg., Los Angeles, Cal.

EASTER LILIES and roses 75c. doz.; carnations 35c. doz.; for church, hall, and home decoration. Finest line of paper flowers. \$2 sample box sent postpaid for \$1.25. Catalog free. The Entertainment Shop, 99 Fourth Ave., New York.

WANTED—Men and women attendants: women aged 18 to 35, salary \$16.00 to \$22.00 per month and maintenance; men aged 21 to 40, salary \$22.00 to \$30.00 per month and maintenance; salaries increased \$1.00 every six months until maximums are reached. We have training-school for nurses, also opportunities for promotions. For further particulars address Superintendent, Kings Park State Hospital (Insane), Kings Park, L. I., N. Y.

A generous scholarship in one of the best New England schools is offered for next autumn to a bright girl wishing to prepare for college; preferably the daughter of a clergyman or a professor. 6,101, Outlook.

FOR SALE—An Alaska dancing blanket, perfect condition. Address 6,103, Outlook.

SENT free to intending buyers—Our new catalogue 500 pages, 30,000 engravings, 100,000 items. Jewelry, diamonds, watches, silverware, clocks, optical and musical goods, etc. Lowest prices on record. Fine pianos, guaranteed ten years, only \$139.50. Write to-day for the big book of the foremost concern of its kind in the world. S. F. Myers Co., 47-49 Maiden Lane, Desk O, New York.

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THE issue of THE OUTLOOK for APRIL 13 will be a good issue for Real Estate Advertising, and especial attention will be paid to illustrated announcements. Send for circular.